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**AN EXAMINATION OF SELECTED GENDER-EQUITY FACTORS
IN NCAA DIVISION I-A INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS FROM
2001-2003**

Committee:

Marilyn C. Kameen, Supervisor

Norvell Northcutt

Michael P. Thomas

Janice S. Todd

Richard Lewis, Jr.

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by

Susan Webster Gray, M.Ed., B.A.

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Dedication

This paper is dedicated to women who have encouraged me to succeed:
Susan, Jody, Billie Jean, Rosalie, Karen, Bobbie, Phyllis, Ilene, Vicky and
Marilyn.

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Susan Webster Gray, Ph.D.

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Supervisor: Marilyn C. Kameen

The purpose of this study was to measure changes in gender equity in NCAA Division I-A institutions from 2001 to 2003. Factors examined were athlete participation, operating expenses, recruiting expenses, athletically related student aid (scholarships), average head coach salaries and average assistant coach salaries.

The primary source for the data was the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) forms completed by the institutions for the years 2000-2001, 2001-2002 and 2002-2003. The information obtained from the EADA forms was analyzed using SPSS software in an attempt to identify common characteristics between NCAA Division I-A institutions, which had made progress toward gender equity during the

three years of the study. The data for all NCAA Division I-A institutions were analyzed as a group, by each of the seven factors listed above.

A secondary data source was an online survey of senior woman administrators (SWA) from three NCAA Division I-A BCS Conferences. The SWAs were asked to weigh the significance of five factors identified in the data analysis of the EADA forms.

The researcher expected to find the attitude of the athletic director toward gender equity and the size of the operating expenses budget to play a key role in movement toward gender equity. The EADA data did not bring any clear common characteristics to the forefront in determining institutions that have made progress in gender equity; however the survey of senior woman administrators made it apparent that the attitude of the athletic director is the one dominating factor in an institution's movement toward gender equity in athletics. 100% of the SWAs participating in the survey selected the attitude of the athletic director as the most key factor in movement toward gender equity. The secondary factors identified by the SWAs were the attitude of other senior administrators on campus and the attitude of the SWA. The two money-oriented factors the SWAs were asked to evaluate, size of operating expense budget and revenue generated, came in fourth and fifth place in significance.

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Chapter I

Introduction

"No person in the United States shall on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving Federal Financial Assistance." (Educational Amendments of 1972, Pub. L. 92-318, 86 Stat. 235, 373 (1972) (codified as amended at 20 U.S.C. § 1681 (1994)).

Just over 30 years ago, the United States Congress passed the Educational Act of 1972. A section of this legislation dealt with gender equity issues in the educational setting. Similar issues had been confronted concerning race and ethnicity, but Title IX was the first codified law requiring educational institutions at all levels to offer males and females equal opportunities (Cahn, 1994). The wording of Title IX is broad and encompasses educational programs receiving federal funding of any sort. The courts have played a significant role in the definition of Title IX and its application in the realm of education.

The Title IX statute does not reference athletics. Athletics program requirements are specifically addressed at 34 C.F.R. § 106.41 of the Title IX regulation. Athletic scholarships are addressed at § 106.37(c) of the Title IX regulation

([http://www.ncaa.org/gender_equity/resource_materials/AdditionalMaterials/Title IX Facts.pdf](http://www.ncaa.org/gender_equity/resource_materials/AdditionalMaterials/Title_IX_Facts.pdf), retrieved on June 10, 2003).

One of the challenges with Title IX as it relates to intercollegiate sports lies in the determination of which agency should regulate compliance. The organization

with the most to gain or lose in the world of collegiate athletics, The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is a private organization, which educational institutions choose to join or not join. The NCAA has no official role in Title IX compliance. On the NCAA's website, information concerning Title IX is in a section called Education Programs, Grants & Research, not the section entitled Enforcement & Reinstatement (<http://www.ncaa.org/>, retrieved on June 8, 2003).

In 1999, The Supreme Court heard the case of the NCAA v. Renee M. Smith. In this case Justice Ruth Ginsburg delivered the opinion of The Court, ruling the NCAA is not a federally funded organization, though it receives dues from member institutions, which are federally funded (National Collegiate Athletic Assn., 525 U.S.459 (1999)). Because the NCAA was found not to be a federally funded program, it was determined the NCAA may not be held responsible in court in cases relating to compliance issues (http://www.ncaa.org/gender_equity/resource_materials/Fed.Reg.&Caselaw/NCAA_v_RMSmith-Supreme.pdf, retrieved on June 10, 2003).

Enforcement of Title IX falls to the Office of Civil Rights, within the United States Department of Education. The U.S. Department of Education has sought periodic interpretations of the law from the Office of Civil Rights and acknowledged various judicial decisions stemming from cases filed by universities and students concerning Title IX implementation. The OCR issued an Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation December 11, 1979, 44 Fed. Reg. 71413, et seq. (1979). This 1979 Policy Interpretation remains current policy

http://www.ncaa.org/gender_equity/resource_materials/AdditionalMaterials/Title_IX_Facts.pdf, retrieved on June 8, 2003). "On April 2, 1990, OCR issued an athletics policy document called 'Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual' that has assisted athletic departments with enforcement and compliance issues with Title IX" (http://www1.ncaa.org/membership/ed_outreach/gender_equity/index.html, retrieved on June 8, 2003).

On July 11, 2002, the Secretary of Education, Rod Paige, filed a Notice of Establishment for the Commission on Opportunity in Athletics (<http://www.ed.gov/legislation/FedRegister/other/2002-3/0711102a.html>, retrieved on June 8, 2003). This 15-member special commission was charged with three main functions:

1. To collect information, analyze issues, and obtain broad public input directed at improving the application of current Federal standards for measuring equal opportunity for men, women, boys and girls to participate in athletics under Title IX.
2. To recommend to the Secretary, in a written report to be submitted no later than January 31, 2003, whether those standards should be revised, and, if so, how. The Commission was also to recommend other steps that might be taken to improve the effectiveness of Title IX and to maintain and build upon the extraordinary progress that has resulted from its passage 30 years ago.
3. To collect and analyze information and comments from members of

the public. To this end, the Commission was to conduct at least three town-hall meetings in different parts of the country to obtain a public discussion of the issues

(<http://www.ed.gov/inits/commissionsboards/athletics/charter.html>, retrieved on June 1, 2003).

The Commission on Opportunity in Athletics submitted its final report on February 28, 2003 (<http://www.ed.gov/pubs/titleixat30/index.html>, retrieved June 8, 2003). In general, the Commission made no significant changes to Title IX.

Compliance with Title IX is distinguished by insistence on nondiscriminatory treatment and benefits for women and men, commonly referred to as gender equity. The NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force defined an athletic program to be gender equitable when "the participants in both the men's and women's sports programs would accept as fair and equitable the overall program of the other gender" (http://www1.ncaa.org/membership/ed_outreach/gender_equity/index.html).

The Office of Civil Rights outlined three key areas for schools to concentrate on when considering compliance:

1. Participation opportunities
2. Financial assistance
3. All other benefits and opportunities, such as quality of equipment and locker facilities.

This three-pronged approach is the basis for judging Title IX compliance.

In the area of participation, the generally accepted compliance standard offers participation opportunities to each gender based on the idea of proportionality of that gender to the entire undergraduate student population. A school, which is 52% female in its undergraduate student population, should aim for 52% of the athletic participation opportunities to be for females. The courts have not penalized schools based on proportionality, due to the numbers of players required on certain single-gender teams, such as football. This notion of proportionality is one of the most divisive in the Title IX arena. Another challenge to the proportionality prong is the difference in enforcement from the various regional offices of the Office of Civil Rights. Regional employees in some areas grant compliance when an institution is within 5% of the undergraduate population, while others require a tighter standard of 1%.

Many problems, both actual and perceived, have led to an abundance of litigation and enforcement disputes. These issues have been exacerbated by differing presidential administrations taking differing views on the interpretation and application of Title IX. The differing political viewpoints have led to heightened distrust and divisiveness between national civil rights organizations and one particular presidential administration, that of Republican President Ronald Reagan. This was a time of several bitter legal disputes surrounding the enforcement of Title IX and other civil rights laws (Halpern, 1995). Just as the Reagan Administration put its mark on Title IX, the Clinton and George W. Bush administrations had

interactions with Title IX, as well. The politics of Title IX will be discussed in the review of literature.

The Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987 resolved several disputes concerning Congressional intent and it finally determined that Title IX did indeed include intercollegiate athletic programs. "Given the fact that no Federal Courts of Appeals have ruled against Title IX's athletic provisions...it is clear that the immediate challenge for our nation's higher education community is to find positive ways to comply with the law" (U.S. Department of Education, 1997, p. 18).

"Although most institutions are not in compliance with Title IX, no institution has lost federal funding as a result of non-compliance with Title IX. The Office of Civil Rights states that it does not have sufficient staff/budget to fully enforce Title IX. Institutions have had to pay substantial damages and attorneys' fees in cases brought to court (<http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/cgi-bin/iowa/issues/rights/article.html?record=888>, retrieved on June 3, 2003). Up until May 2004 no institution has lost any federal funding due to noncompliance with Title IX.

One difficulty institutions have in complying with Title IX may be a result of a lack of information available to those responsible for compliance at the institutional level. It was a goal of this study to assist NCAA Division I-A institutions in determining how they "measured up" with the national trends in gender-equity statistics.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The intent of this study was to examine the progress of NCAA Division I-A institutions' performance in gender equity between 2001 and 2003. NCAA Division I-A and I-AA institutions are required to offer 14 sports, seven for men and seven for women or six for men and eight for women. Due to the difference in budgets, facilities and other resources, NCAA Division I-AA institutions were not included in this study. NCAA Division I-AAA institutions do not play football, so they were not included in this study, since football is a major issue in Title IX compliance (http://www1.ncaa.org/membership/membership_svcs/membership_breakdown.html retrieved on January 25, 2004). NCAA Division II institutions are required to sponsor only four sports for men and four for women. NCAA Division III institutions are required to sponsor five sports for men and five for women, yet Division III institutions are not allowed to provide any financial assistance based on athletic ability (http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html, retrieved on May 4, 2004). As of March 4, 2004, the NCAA website listed total active membership of 1,025 institutions. The membership breakdown was:

Div I-A	Div I-AA	Div I-AAA	Div II	Div III	Total
117	121	88	279	420	1,025

(http://www1.ncaa.org/membership/membership_svcs/membership_breakdown.html, retrieved on May 4, 2004). For the purposes of this study military academies were eliminated from the data analysis, though they are classified as NCAA Division I-A.

These institutions are heavily weighted toward male students and offer all students a full scholarship to attend. This study worked with the remaining 113 NCAA Division I-A institutions.

This quantitative investigation explored the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) forms for NCAA Division I-A member institutions from the years 2000-2001, 2001-2002 and 2002-2003 and led us to understand more fully the progress these major athletic institutions are making in the realm of athletics gender equity. The EADA forms are required under The Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act, passed by the U.S. Congress in 1994, Section 360B of Public Law 103-382 (<http://www.vernoncollege.edu/eada.html#geninfo>). The EADA calls for coeducational institutions of higher education, participating in federal student aid programs and that have intercollegiate athletic programs, to file a report disclosing certain information concerning their intercollegiate athletic programs, on an annual basis.

The study also analyzed the common characteristics of NCAA Division I-A institutions that have made progress toward achieving gender equity. Some of these common characteristics were theorized to be: a total operating budget over \$20 million, a student population within five percentage points of a 50-50 split between male and female students and addition of at least two new sports for women in the last three years.

Secondly, this study examined the perceptions of three major NCAA Division I-A athletic conferences' senior woman administrators (SWA) concerning progress of

NCAA Division I-A institutions, towards a gender equitable athletic program. The SWAs were surveyed by the researcher, to assess their perceptions of movement toward gender equity in NCAA Division I-A institutions. The SWAs' perceptions were compared to the actual progress shown over the three years of the study.

The hypothesis for the study was that there has been no change in gender equity among NCAA Division I-A institutions between 2001 and 2003.

The researcher predicted the study would find money and a motivated athletic director to be key ingredients in an institution's move toward gender equity. Institutions which have made the most progress in gender equity, have significant athletic department budgets, as well as an athletic director who wants to move toward compliance.

Other factors, which may emerge from the study findings as common characteristics of the institutions that have made progress, are the department's revenue generating capability and the level of scholarship money available to female athletes.

These key ingredients were predicted to be interdependent, in that one without the other may not lead to a gender equitable athletic program. In other words, an athletic director, who wants to move toward gender equity, yet is short on funds, may have a harder time achieving gender equity in athletics. Similarly, an athletic department with significant money, yet no motivation from the athletic director, may not move toward gender equity. The institutions' fiscal information was studied through the EADA forms. The significance of the athletic directors'

motivation was measured through the responses made in the online survey, by the SWAs.

SUB-PROBLEMS

For the purposes of this study, gender equity and Title IX compliance progress, were measured through the figures attained from the EADA form:

1. the number of undergraduate students attending institutions in the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by gender;
2. the number of unduplicated athletic participation opportunities within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by gender;
3. operating expenses of NCAA Division I-A institutions delineated by amount, sport (football, basketball and all others) and team gender;
4. recruiting expenditures of NCAA Division I-A institutions delineated by amount and team gender;
5. athletically related student aid with the NCAA Division I-A delineated by amount and team gender;
5. average head coaches' salaries within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by amount and gender of the team coached;
5. average assistant coaches' salaries within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by amount and gender of the team coached.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions were based on the seven issues raised in the sub-problems outlined in the previous section. The results of the study outlined progress toward gender equity in NCAA Division I-A institutions, as defined by the EADA statistics. These findings were then compared to other NCAA Division I-A institutions over the same time period. The following questions were examined:

0. What change took place within the NCAA Division I-A, from 2001 to 2003 in gender-equity, as measured by the number of participants, operating expenses, student aid and head coaches' salaries?
0. What common characteristics were found among institutions which made the most progress toward gender equity?
0. Was it true that Division I-A institutions with significant athletic department budgets were more apt to have made progress toward gender equity in the last three years?
0. How did the perceptions of progress of the senior women administrators compare to actual progress made toward Title IX compliance?

The data for the individual institutions in the NCAA Division I-A were analyzed against other NCAA Division I-A institutions.

ASSUMPTIONS

In order to research these questions, certain assumptions were necessary:

1. Each NCAA Division I-A institution completed and submitted their EADA forms in 2001, 2002 and 2003.

2. The EADA survey forms were prepared by each institution in a manner consistent with the instructions provided by the U.S. Department of Education.
2. The information provided on the EADA forms was accurate and truthful.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited in the following ways:

1. Between 2001 and 2003 the NCAA Division I-A membership changed slightly.
1. The study did not address the educational training or years of experience of the head coaches or assistant coaches whose salaries were part of the study.
1. The EADA form did not allow the institution's reporter to state the reasons for any changes evident in the institution's submission from year to year.
1. While presented to the researcher as valid data, the database provided by the U.S. Department of Education could contain errors.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to assess the progress toward gender equity at NCAA Division I-A member institutions. One goal of the study was to compare the institutions' actual progress with a select group of SWAs' perceived progress toward gender equity. Because no institution has ever lost federal funding due to noncompliance, this researcher argued there was little motivation for institutions to work assiduously towards compliance. The SWAs' perceptions about where institutions stand on gender equity in athletics, combined with the athletic director's

opinion about the importance of becoming compliant, play a major role in how diligently institutions work toward compliance.

This researcher was seeking to discover if institutions, which made the most progress toward compliance, shared common characteristics. This information was sought to help athletic administrators, the NCAA and U.S. Department of Education officials understand how to move gender equity in collegiate athletics off “high center.”

In addition, athletic administrators may find information in this study a useful tool to help identify areas of gender equity compliance that might be improved. This study also will assist NCAA Division I-A institutions in evaluating their progress in gender equity compliance by using aggregate data from the most recent three-year period. Recommendations for how athletic administrators may move toward greater compliance will be made based on the identified common characteristics.

SUMMARY

The literature review for this paper is included in Chapter Two. It encompasses three key components in the study of gender equity in sports, beginning with an overview of the history of women’s participation in sport. The history section is outlined by the decade with highlights from each time period, from 1920s to today. The second section reviews the role of the courts and enforcement agencies in women’s sports, especially Title IX. The final section looks at the EADA form, which was used as the primary survey instrument for this study.

Chapter II

Literature Review

“In the Western world, not only have men dominated the playing fields, but athletic qualities such as aggression, competitiveness, strength, speed, power and teamwork have been associated with masculinity” (Cahn, 1994, p. 3). In 1873, Edward Clarke wrote, “both muscular and brain labor must be reduced at the onset of menstruation” (Park & Hult, 1993, p. 35). Manipulating science to reinforce established dogma prevailed for many years, in spite of many examples of women who were perfectly capable of performing extraordinary physical feats and intellectual tasks. Susan Cahn (1994) argues in Coming on Strong that this dogma was often rooted in deeper concerns about the social implications of female athleticism. “The female athlete kindled acute anxieties about the erosion of men’s physical supremacy and the loss of distinct male and female preserves” (Cahn, p. 20). Many early opportunities for women to engage in physical opportunities were thwarted as a result of this thinking (Park & Hult).

This chapter will lead the reader through an abbreviated history of gender and sport from the late nineteenth century to today. The history will be presented in five time periods: Pre-1900, 1900-1929, 1930-1949, 1950-1971, 1972-present.

PRE-1900

“Historians have labeled the period from the 1890s to World War I as the Progressive Era, largely because progress was the goal of contemporaries, especially members of the urban middle class. Accomplishment did not always match rhetoric, but many women did see their positions and the quality of their lives enhanced. Some urban workingwomen earned more pay and improved conditions and some of the industries that employed women organized, first, calisthenics or physical culture classes and then team sports to promote personal health and worker efficiency. Such programs became more widespread after the turn of the century, and by the 1920s individual companies and regional industries had multiple teams in sports such as basketball, bowling, tennis, baseball, volleyball and eventually softball. Among the results were good advertising for the companies and competitive opportunities and on occasion, additional income for the athletes” (Struna, 2001, <http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/cgi-bin/iowa/issues/history/article.html?record=769>, retrieved on June 21, 2004).

Upper-class women came to incorporate opportunities for competitive sports into their lives. In the 1870s and 1880s such women had joined clubs, social clubs, country clubs, and then sport-specific clubs, just as their brothers and husbands. Women also engaged in sports in colleges and on their vacations (Struna, 2001).

“By 1900 seven of these women competed in their first Olympics, in Paris, and despite the enduring opposition of the prime mover behind the modern Olympic Games, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, women consistently competed in the Olympic

Games thereafter, albeit in small numbers and in socially acceptable sports such as tennis, archery, swimming and figure skating” (Struna, 2001, <http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/cgi-bin/iowa/issues/history/article.html?record=769>).

The Progressive era history of middle-class women's sporting experiences is more complex. Especially before the turn of the century, women experienced considerable latitude in forming sport clubs and organizing competitions and appeared to gain a degree of physical and personal freedom to sport similar to that enjoyed by their working and upper-class sisters. Women initially popularized the newly created sports of basketball and volleyball and the rapid spread of such sports, as well as field hockey, cycling, and tennis. Their participation encouraged their teachers and recreation supervisors to form associations and write rules for women's activities (Struna, 2001).

However, many of the women who came to control sports for girls and women, especially in schools and colleges, had accepted the warnings of the medical profession that unfettered athletic competition would harm female participants, physically and psychologically, and detract from or even diminish their femininity. Consequently, in the 1890s, women physical educators began to limit sport contests, initially by changing the rules of some games, such as basketball, and eventually by altering the very nature of contests (Struna, 2001).

“Nineteenth-century medical science characterized women as the physiologically inferior sex, weakened and ruled by their reproductive systems”

(Cahn, 1994, p. 13). Women's health and physical education professionals failed to convince the cynics that a woman's participation in sports would not change her into a man.

The first intercollegiate sports event between women's teams might have been a tennis tournament between Bryn Mawr and Vassar; however the tournament was canceled because the Vassar faculty did not allow their female athletes to participate in "such competition" (Gerber, et al., 1974, p.78). The first women's intercollegiate athletic squads to participate in a recorded activity were the basketball teams from The University of California at Berkeley, Stanford University, The University of Washington and the Ellensburg Normal School. These games are reported to have occurred in 1896 (Gerber, et al.). The University of California was the first institution to field a women's basketball team. The first game on record for one of these squads was The University of California against Miss Head's School on November 18, 1892 (Swanson & Spears, 1995).

"Outside of the colleges, post-war middle- and upper-class women were also moving to take advantage of the increasing array of modern sports. Local gymnasiums, armories turned into playing areas, and a host of clubs that formed as men and women sought new forms of community provided urban and townswomen with opportunities for a range of sports, from skating and rowing to trap shooting and tennis. Such activities continued to stretch the bounds of activity acceptable for and to women" (Struna, 2001).

In Jan Todd's book, Physical Culture and the Body Beautiful: Purposive Exercise in the Lives of American Women 1800-1870, she discusses the wide range of women's exercise in the antebellum era. Todd contends women were more involved in exercise than modern history books report. She goes on to describe what she terms "majestic womanhood," a concept defined by a woman's competence, education and physical fitness. This ideal woman was described in Mary Wollstonecraft's *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* written in 1793. Wollstonecraft's essay was written in response to an essay, *Emile*, written in 1762 by Jean Jacques Rousseau, in which he describes "the importance of outdoor athletics in his formation of manly, ideal men" (Todd, 1998, p. 11). Rousseau did not promote exercise for women, but he did expect women to be strong so they could be good homemakers for their husbands and mothers to their children. Because Rousseau saw men and women to be vastly different creatures, he espoused vastly different educations for the genders. He went so far as to promote an educational curriculum for boys that placed the main emphasis on their human strength. If women wanted to exercise to make their bodies more beautiful for their husband's enjoyment, that sort of exercise was acceptable (Todd).

Wollstonecraft's view of women was that they were not educated to be strong and that society's expectations of women were low. She went on to explain that women have the same capacity as men to be strong; however society did not challenge women to reach their full potential. Wollstonecraft contended that if girls were allowed to exercise their potential would be raised (Todd, 1998, p. 15).

In the mid 1800s, Dr. Dioclesian Lewis offered the idea, “that once women’s bodies were larger, stronger and more enduring, women would be able to participate as man’s equal in the world outside the home” (Todd, 1998, p. 211). Dr. Lewis practiced what he preached and worked hard with his wife Helen after her illness, to nurse her back to health using a regimen of daily exercise. Helen did gain full recovery and enjoyed her elderly years more than her peers, due in part to her dedication to daily exercise. While Dr. Lewis was successful in some areas early in his career, many of his peers thought his progressive ideas of encouraging women to exercise were extreme. Later in Lewis’ career his writings were more readily accepted. Dr. Lewis “encouraged American women to take their first faltering steps out of physical bondage” (Todd, 1998, p. 274). As Todd noted in her book, American women are arguably still faltering out of the gate.

The discussion of purposive exercise in Todd’s book is a precursor to the challenge women athletes still face today. Her book builds the case that exercise influences women physically, intellectually and emotionally, all characteristics for a well-rounded lifestyle. These influences are still at the core of why it is healthy for women to exercise on a regular basis.

Patricia Vertinsky’s book The Eternally Wounded Woman, discusses the challenges women in the late 1800s faced concerning the influence of pseudo-scientific medical findings identifying “women’s limited physical and mental capacity and the centrality of the reproductive process for understanding women’s bodies” (Vertinsky, 1994, p. 39). The “eternal wound” the author refers to is the female

menstrual cycle. The male doctors, according to Vertinsky, used the theory that women were mentally and physically weak during their menstrual cycle each month, therefore severely limiting their capabilities and serving as a disability for the duration of their reproductive years. Because doctors of this day believed this theory, and the people believed what the doctors told them, this theory prevailed. “Victorian doctors readily imputed invalidism to menstruating women who were simply displaying normal symptoms and regarded the male body as the norm and the female as a deviation” (Vertinsky, p. 40). Citing the renewal of this disability concept over generations of doctors, “the menstrual function developed to define and delimit the parameters of female physical activity” (Vertinsky, p. 40).

As women began to join the medical field their predominant outlook on women’s exercise was similar to the male doctors. The women doctors saw their medical careers as a social mission and aimed to help women stay healthy so they could be good mothers and caregivers. While some women doctors encouraged their patients to exercise, the reason for doing so were not simply to make them healthier people, but to prepare them for childbirth, childrearing and homemaking (Vertinsky). Because women doctors were insecure in their profession, those who thought differently from their male or female counterparts were not keen on sharing their opinions.

1900-1929

During the 1900s, women’s sports advocates created numerous, often competing strategies, to deal with the “dissonance between masculine sport and

feminine womanhood” (Cahn, p. 4.) Male sports were considered competitive, physically demanding and requiring a particular skill. Efforts were made to encourage women to compete in those sports which were considered to be more feminine. These sports were a hybrid of men’s sports, yet less competitive, less demanding and required fewer skills (Cahn).

Women made some progress in the Olympic movement at the 1900 Olympic Games in Paris, participating in golf and tennis. In 1904, this brief stint in the games was stymied by James Sullivan, an American charged with leading the 1904 Games in St. Louis, who thought sports were “morally a questionable experience for women” (Welch & Lerch, 1981, p. 294). Sullivan agreed to allow women to compete in archery only. The women’s golf and tennis competitions were eliminated. All of the women archers in the St. Louis Games were from the United States (Guttmann, 1991).

In 1908, the London Olympics offered tennis, archery and figure skating with the majority of participants from the host country, as in 1904. The 1912 Olympic Games in Stockholm introduced swimming and diving for female participation, but James Sullivan blocked the American women from participating. With no Games held in 1916, due to World War I, the American women found the opportunity to attend the 1920 Games in Antwerp, Belgium a bit less difficult as Sullivan had died in 1916. The American women boycotted the tennis events due to a rules disagreement, but dominated the swimming and diving, winning all but one event (Guttmann, 1991).

Women's fencing was added to the agenda at the Paris Games of 1924, with the breakthrough coming when the International Olympic Committee (IOC) approved women's track and field and team gymnastics for the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam. This was made possible in part due to the retirement of the IOC president Coubertin. With the European women, minus the British, pushing for the addition of more sports, the new IOC president, Comte Henri Baillet-Latour of Belgium, was more open to the idea of women's participation than his predecessor (Guttman, 1991).

In 1928, women participants comprised 9.6% of the total athlete count in Amsterdam. That year American Betty Robinson was the first woman to win a gold medal in track and field at the Olympics for the 100-meter race (<http://www.cbc.ca/olympics/history/1932.html>). Shortly after the Games in Amsterdam, the IOC responded to a collection of voices, including American physical educators, asking them reverse their "reckless" decision to include women's track and field in the Olympic Games. In 1929, the IOC voted to remove track and field from the 1932 Olympic Games (Guttman, 1991).

In 1930, Gustavus Kirby, president of the AAU and the American representative on the international Amateur Athletic Federation, threatened a boycott of the male track and field athletes at the 1932 Olympics in Los Angeles, if the women's competition was not reinstated. Kirby attended the 1930 Olympic Congress in Berlin and advocated for the women track and field athletes. The

Olympic Congress voted 17-1 to reinstate women's track and field (Guttman, 1991).

The 1932 Olympic Games in Los Angeles were the stage for Babe Didrikson's two gold medals and one silver medal effort. Women participants were only allowed to enter three events (Guttman, 1991). In addition the 1932 Games brought the photo-finish camera which timed events to 1/100th of a second. Other innovations in 1932 included the three-tiered medal podium and formal medal ceremonies held at the end of each day that included raising the flags of the winning athletes' nations (<http://www.cbc.ca/olympics/history/1932.html>).

In the 1920s, the women's suffrage movement was successful in passing the Nineteenth Amendment, which gave women the right to vote. This was a time of renewed emphasis on women's freedoms, which resulted in modest gains in women's sports and intercollegiate competition (Gelb, Polley & Palley, 1987).

In 1923, women physical educators, along with leaders from women's scouting, recreation and other athletic associations, gathered to form the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Foundation. "Mrs. Lou Hoover, leader of the Girl Scouts of America and wife of Herbert Hoover, headed the group, but women physical educators dominated the committee leadership and active membership roles" (Cahn, 1994, p. 61). Working in conjunction with the Committee on Women's Athletics, (an American Physical Education Association committee), the Women's Division leadership worked against all forms of highly competitive sports for women, because they were thought to be "inherently threatening to the female

athlete's moral and physical well-being" (Hult, 1985, p. 61). The women physical educators were concerned about losing control of the intercollegiate contests, in the way they had perceived the men to do, so they opposed intercollegiate contests (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, and Wyrick, 1974).

In the prepared platform of the Women's Division the group pledged "to develop the sport for the girl and not the girl for the sport" (Sefton, 1941, p. 32). This pledge was intended to "modify men's sport to fit the unique capabilities and needs of women" (Cahn, 1994, p. 62). The women leaders of the Women's Division were determined to have female leaders lead sporting activities they deemed to be appropriate for female athletes. These leaders were insistent that women athletes participate in sport for the sake of play, not winning. They were convinced that male leadership of women's sports would lead to a more competitive atmosphere, which would be detrimental to the female athletes (Cahn, p. 64). Women physical educators were aware of the problems and criticisms surrounding men's intercollegiate athletics and were determined to keep women's athletics as an educational program.

From the beginning the proponents of the Women's Division believed that "the welfare, health and education of women depends upon the women experts of girls and women's athletics organizing themselves as a deliberating and administrative body to deal with the special problems of athletics for girls and women" ("Report of the Committee on Organization of the Conference on Athletics and Physical Education for Women and Girls, April 6 & 7, 1923, June 1923, p. 284).

The goals of the National Amateur Athletic Foundation (NAAF) were to “play for play’s sake” (Gerber, et al., 1974, p. 95), to limit travel to contests, to limit the awards granted, to protect the participant from exploitation, to discourage sensational publicity and to place qualified women in leadership positions in women’s sports and physical education activities. The group’s motto was, “every girl in a sport and a sport for every girl” (Gerber, et al., p. 98). This position was viewed as positive for women’s participation, but negative for women’s competition, so women’s intercollegiate competition decreased in the early 1900s (Gerber, et al.).

The Women’s Division leadership was a majority of White, female, physical educators whose views were written in the prepared platform. It should be noted that African-American, female, physical educators and rural White, female, physical educators were not always on the same page with the Women’s Division leadership. “A study in 1939 found that only 25% of black colleges objected to intercollegiate women’s sport, compared to a survey of predominantly white institutions that reported 83% opposition to women’s varsity athletics” (Beamon, 1979, p. 18-20).

During this time the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), run by men, saw the interest of the young female athletes in competitive sports and began to offer meets for competition. In addition, the industrial and community leagues began to offer competitions the women sought, but could not find in their schools. The industrial and community league leaders went about their business with little regard for the wishes of the Women’s Division leaders. On the other hand, male AAU leaders

directly disagreed with the Women's Division desire for "gender and professional authority" (Kirby Address to National Amateur Athletic Federation, 1926).

In 1929, Ethel Perrin wrote an essay outlining her fear that male promoters of female competitive sporting activities would take away the most talented female athletes, leaving the female coaches and physical educators with the less-skilled female athletes (Perrin, 1929).

1930-1949

After 1929 the Great Depression disrupted the sports world, but it did not close it entirely. The popularity of industrial sport likely peaked in the 1930s with sports such as softball and bowling extremely popular among women. Women's Olympic competition also gained more popular support in part because support continued to diminish for the mythology of the negative physical and biological consequences of athletics for women. Also, women continued to enter nontraditional roles, a trend that became more pronounced as World War II began. After 1941 more and more women took jobs that had once belonged to the men who went abroad to fight (<http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/cgi-bin/iowa/issues/history/article.html?record=769>, retrieved on June 21, 2004).

The AAU leadership bragged about their ability to attract women who would otherwise not participate in school physical education activities because they had dropped out of high school or chosen to not attend college. AAU leadership attempted to sell their program to Women's Division Leaders as a program with

something for girls from all nationalities and different socioeconomic groups (Annual Meeting of AAU Minutes, 1932).

The Depression left millions of Americans out of work, resulting in a concerted effort to keep women out of the work force, so the jobs that were available would be available to the male breadwinners. This was a setback for women's struggle to gain equal rights. This societal expectation that a woman's place was in the home pushed aside the idea of psychological and physiological benefits to be gained from involvement in sport. This was the predominant view until the 1940s (Lucas & Smith, 1982).

In 1932, the AAU created the National Women's Sports Committee (NWSC) to investigate the charges made against the AAU, by female physical educators, over the previous 10-year period. Initially the NWSC surveyed 232 top female athletes. The survey indicated almost every one had seen an improvement in her overall health, with no ill effects on menstruation, due to competition in sports (Cahn, 1994, p. 73). The survey respondents "firmly believed that the 'competitive spirit' benefited rather than harmed female athletes ("National Women's Sports Committee Report," 1932).

AAU leadership determined there was need for more female leadership in sport and vowed to make an effort to include women in these roles. While the AAU continued to offer women's programs, their effort to include female leaders was more talk than action. AAU is organized on the state, regional and national level with national directives not always trickling down to the state and local leaders. For

female athletic competitors who had a strong desire to compete for an AAU national championship, the AAU structure would usually meet their needs. AAU support across the country was sporadic and did not create the mass appeal to all female athletes for which they had aimed (Cahn, 1994, p. 73).

As women's sport began to grow leaders encountered an emphasis on control and moderation for female athletes, which created a bias against the working women who participated in industrial leagues, and in favor of the society women who participated in school physical education classes or private club activities. The society women participated in sports, which were acceptable, with virtually no audience to watch them. The workingwomen participated in industrial league sports, which were considered mannish and drew an audience for viewing (Halsey, 1927). The society women were participating for the express reason of learning "emotional control" and an "evenness of temper" (Savage, 1930, p. 13). They were receiving the "best attributes" of sport (Savage, 1930, p. 13). The workingwomen were portrayed as more competitive, thus not receiving the best attributes of sport participation.

Anna Hiss, University of Texas Director of Physical Training, was reported to have referred to women's intercollegiate sport as having a "semi-professional attitude" (*The Texan*, 1922). Hiss said this sort of attitude led directly to "a swagger and a lack of refinement, a breaking down of reserve, and an inclination toward tomboyishness" (*The Texan*). Women who showed the attributes of confidence or

competitiveness were viewed as mannish and having gone too far into the world of athletic competition.

Popular media in the 1920s and 1930s compared female athletes to chorus girls, movie stars and beauty queens (Cahn, 1994, p. 77). AAU tournaments embodied this comparison by crowning tournament beauty queens. These beauty queens were honored equally with the tournament's all-tournament team. Through this practice the AAU fostered the concept that the female athlete was to be appreciated as much for her sexual appeal as for her athletic ability. While the female athlete may "display her 'masculine' athletic ability, she established her femininity through her attractiveness to men" (Cahn, p. 79).

Modern era tennis players such as Anna Kournikova continue to craft skills as an athlete, while promoting their attractiveness to men. "Perhaps the most heavily sponsored and marketed female athlete in sports today, Anna also ranks as one of the biggest draws on the entire tennis tour, commanding standing-room-only crowds for her Grand Slam appearances and often selling out exhibitions" (<http://www.kournikova.com/facts/bio.php>, retrieved on 12/21/03). Chris Evert, who arguably filled a similar role in women's tennis in the 1970s and 1980s, says about Kournikova, "She's a gorgeous young woman who's very fit and works hard at her profession and is in the top ten in the world" (Ibid). While Kournikova's sex appeal has not waned, her singles ranking as of December 15, 2003, had fallen to number 309, with her doubles ranking at number 176, on the Women's Tennis Association professional tour

(http://www.wtatour.com/index.cfm?wta_action=singles&type=ranks&rsort=301§ion=standings&cont_id=wts_singles, retrieved on 12/21/03). The advertising copy written on Anna's personal website to sell a calendar highlighting her pictures urges the customer to, "Have Kournikova in your life 365 days a year! Anna Kournikova's spectacular 12" by 12" Official 2004 Calendar features brand new stunning hot images of beautiful Anna" (<http://www.kournikova.com/store/>, retrieved on 12/21/03).

The World War II era also saw the advent of the first women's professional sports teams. The All-American Girls Baseball League was started in 1943 in an attempt to replace the men's major league baseball season, which had been canceled due to the war. The league was promoted using slogans such as, "Recreation for the War Worker" and "Family Entertainment" (Swanson & Spears, 1995, p. 246). Even as World War II ended, women's sports organizations and the push for women's sports participation opportunities began to increase. Women's sports became more competitive and intercollegiate and interscholastic competitions for women began to occur (Gerber, et al., 1974). The All-American Girls Baseball league folded in 1954 due to the advent of television and the change in league management, since the men were now home from war (Swanson & Spears).

During the World War II era male soldiers were encouraged to participate in athletic activities and coached by former athletes with the goal of their sport participation being to "develop tough, hard fighters out of young men who had been reared to believe in peace" (Swanson & Spears, 1995, p. 245). The approximately

216,000 women who served in the women's branches of the armed services, the WAVES, WAC, SPARS and women marines had their own fitness programs, as well. These programs were separate from the men and not considered to be as strenuous (Swanson & Spears).

Despite the social change in the air, the basic values of most Americans continued to be influenced by conservative Protestant views. Sports were seen as a good training ground from teaching boys to become men. While a few female tennis and swimming stars were admired for their skills, the majority of Americans "expected girls and women to refrain from physically demanding or rough sports that were not considered 'ladylike'" (Swanson & Spears, 1995, p. 248).

In the mid-30s the Women's Division's internal strife and financial troubles led to its demise. The Women's Division was absorbed into the APEA's National Section of Women's Athletics (NSWA) in 1940 (Hult, 1985). While women physical educators appeared to be struggling for the right to manage women's athletics, the underlying struggle was over how to manage the public perception of mannishness displayed by female athletes. One camp argued it was healthy and wholesome for a female to participate in sports for a limited amount of time, displaying moderate ability. The other camp sought an energetic, sexy, competitive athlete. The one tenet both camps agreed upon was that "rugged sport and athletic ability" (Cahn, 1994, p. 81) were masculine in nature. Both camps saw it as necessary to keep femininity in women's sports.

Because the two acceptable definitions of women's sport both included femininity as a necessity, the sports most readily available to working-class, rural and Black youth were considered unladylike. This, by definition, meant the most devoted athletes, who were the working-class, minority and poor rural women, were on the wrong side of the feminine versus masculine debate. The primary route for female athletes to receive praise for their physical strength and athletic ability was to be seen as a stronger, healthier wife and mother. While women in some areas were permitted to become athletes, their athletic ability was only justified in relation to their usefulness and attractiveness to men (Cahn, 1994, p. 82).

Some men's clubs allowed women to become associates and participate in separate club activities, without granting the women full membership status. This is still an issue with the Augusta National Golf Club in Georgia (<http://www.now.org/issues/wfw/111202augusta.html>).

In the 1940s the United States was at war and the men were called to military service, causing the work place to experience a shortage of workers. Many women stepped out of their roles as homemakers to fill the void and found themselves to be equal to the task. The self-esteem and self-confidence gained by women during this period drove the movement for women's equal rights forward. If women could succeed in the work force, why not on the sports fields, as well (Chafe, 1972)?

Female physical educators fought hard to change sport rules, which were considered to be masculine, especially in the sport of basketball. They decided that, "Concerns with boundaries and the reduction of physical contact lay at the center of

athletic definitions of femininity” (Cahn, 1994, p. 99). Touching, body contact and running were considered masculine qualities, which should be controlled in basketball by having different rules for men and women. J. Anna Norris hinted that the act of physical touch during basketball was in itself masculine. She contended that allowing the female player more contact would foster “aggressive qualities which seldom add to her charm or usefulness” (Norris, 1924).

Taking this theory a step further, it was determined that the women players’ physical release and emotional intensity, while playing men’s rules basketball, showed their passion for the game, which like touching, was considered to be masculine. This lack of restraint shown by female basketball players was considered to have led the women perilously close to sexual and athletic deviance (Cahn, 1994, p. 100).

While women physical educators were able to create a different playing court, different uniforms and different rules for women’s basketball, the rules were a reflection of the same separations women lived within in the general culture. This new arena for women’s basketball defined the game with an acceptable level of femininity. When progressive, more athletic players sought to break these boundaries, more rules were put into place. Female athletes embraced the idea of competitiveness being a potential benefit for them (Cahn, 1994, p. 101). “The significance of the basketball controversy lies less in this outcome than in what it reveals about the ongoing effort to make ‘masculine’ sport and womanhood compatible” (Cahn, p. 108).

The boundaries caused a separation among races, socio-economic groups and the genders. African-American women and rural White women were competing in sports such as basketball and track and field, which were considered mannish. Upper class White women participated in field hockey, which is arguably more physical in nature than basketball or track, but because of their race and socio-economic background, the White female athletes were still considered feminine (Cahn, 1994, p. 98).

One of the well-known White working-class female athletes, from Port Arthur, Texas, Babe Didrikson, rejected the idea that she was required to display femininity for fans or the press. When asked by a reporter who was impressed by her multi sport talent, "Is there anything at all you don't play?" Babe immediately answered, "Yeah, dolls" (Schaap, 1976, p. 196).

1950-1971

In the 1950s and 1960s the United States found a new social conscience, culminating in the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This helped to increase the status of women and minorities, by law. A new wave of feminist activism was realized (Gelb, et al., 1987). Talk about an Equal Rights Amendment raised the consciousness of women involved in sport.

In 1957, the official position statement of the Division of Girls and Women in Sport (DGWS) was amended to state that, women's intercollegiate sports programs may exist. In 1963, the statement was further amended to say it was desirable for intercollegiate programs for women to exist (Gerber, et al., 1974). In the 1960s and

early 1970s women's sports saw gains in high school and college participation and an opening of the doors of acceptance for women in Olympic sports (Cahn, 1994, p. 246).

In 1966, the DGWS appointed a Commission on Intercollegiate Sports for Women, which was designed to assist in conducting intercollegiate competitions for women college athletes. (One year later the name was changed to the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW).) In 1969, the CIAW scheduled national championships for intercollegiate women's sports in gymnastics and track and field. In 1970, the field of national championships for women was expanded to include swimming, badminton and volleyball. In 1972, the group added a national championship in women's college basketball (Gerber, et. al., 1974).

In their quest to be more like men's intercollegiate athletics, the women's athletics enthusiasts wanted an institutional membership organization they could join that was akin to the NCAA. In response to this challenge, the CIAW was replaced with the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) in 1971.

Cahn discusses the notion of gay women in sports in her book, Coming on Strong. She identifies the gay female athletes as people who "felt torn between personal and sub cultural knowledge of sport as positive, and the dominant cultural view of females as sex/gender deviants" (p. 332). She goes on to write that gay women athletes are forced to live with the contradiction between being a woman and being an athlete with skills considered masculine. The gay women were able to find a sense of belonging and authenticity with other women within the realm of sport.

So while Cahn can quote no statistical studies proving or disproving the assertions that there is a higher rate of gay women in sports than other activities, she says her experiences in interviewing both heterosexual and homosexual women athletes would lead her to believe “that lesbians maintained a greater, or at least more visible, presence in athletics than in most other realms of culture” (Cahn, p. 200).

1972-PRESENT

In the 1970s, the AIAW and the NCAA battled to control women’s intercollegiate athletics (Gerber, et. al., 1974). The AIAW began the 1971-1972 academic year with 278 charter institutions. By 1981, the AIAW had over 800 member institutions. The AIAW stated their mission to “lead and conduct” sports programs at the collegiate level that were competitive for women athletes (Hulstrand, 1993, p. 127). The AIAW prided itself on its focus on academics over athletics, a mission considered to be different from what was perceived to be a win at all costs attitude by NCAA member institutions. The AIAW emphasis was on the woman’s participation in sport, not the outcome of the contest (Sperber, 1990). As the NCAA watched the interest, participation and money base increase in women’s athletics, it became more interested in becoming the controlling organization. The NCAA set a plan to force the AIAW out of the control of women’s sports (Hult, 1994).

The first option in the NCAA plan was to absorb the AIAW into their current structure, and secondly, to offer women’s championships outside the AIAW, to create a link between institutions’ women’s athletics and the NCAA (Stern, 1979). The NCAA then decided to form its own Women’s Committee and to exclude the

AIAW entirely (Carpenter, 1993). Prior to the passage of Title IX, the NCAA had shown little interest in women's intercollegiate sports, because there was nothing in place on a national level, requiring women an equal opportunity to participate. "The formation of this committee was politically significant because prior to this time the NCAA had demonstrated no interest whatever in taking responsibility for women's sports" (Carpenter, p. 83).

In 1973, the NCAA decided to lift the rule excluding women from participating in men's intercollegiate athletic events. The NCAA thought this move would offer a show of being inclusive of women, while keeping them out of the courts on a sex discrimination charge. Since this was not truly an effort to recruit women to NCAA championships, or offer championships in competition with the AIAW, the NCAA thought this compromise would be well received by the AIAW (Festle, 1996). During this time the NCAA began to sense the Federal Government was aiming to ensure equal opportunity for women in intercollegiate athletics. The NCAA thought they must figure out a way to take control of women's intercollegiate sports (Festle, 1966).

In the fall of 1974, the NCAA agreed to a meeting with the AIAW. While the NCAA was looking for the AIAW to affiliate with the NCAA, the AIAW hoped the meeting would lead to a joint committee to draw up rules. The NCAA did not consider the AIAW its peer and would not agree to a 50%-50% union, with equal representation at all levels of policymaking (Festle, 1996).

The NCAA was a powerful adversary for the AIAW because of its wealth, political influence and history. In November 1981, the NCAA offered its first national championship competitions for women. Included in this first round of action was field hockey for Divisions I, II and III and cross-country for Divisions II and III. The latest additions to the women's national collegiate championships are the ice hockey and water polo championships, added in 2001; and the rowing championships added in 2002. All NCAA championships offered prior to 1981 were men's championships. (http://www.ncaa.org/library/records/fall_champs_records_book/2001/history.pdf).

To entice the AIAW institutions to attend the new NCAA women's championships, the NCAA offered to:

- Pay all expenses for teams competing in a national championship,
- Not charge the institution additional NCAA membership fees, in order to add their women's programs to their NCAA institutional membership,
- Maintain the same financial aid, recruitment and eligibility rules for men and women,
- Guarantee the women more opportunities for television coverage.

To meet these promises the NCAA had set aside three million dollars, a feat the AIAW could not match. The AIAW could not compete with the NCAA inducements and the loss of membership, income, media rights and sponsorship dollars led to the AIAW's demise. The AIAW ceased operations on June 30, 1982 (Festle, 1996).

The AIAW filed suit against the NCAA to “bring preliminary and permanent injunctions to prohibit the NCAA from sponsoring women’s championships, or from governing any aspect of women’s intercollegiate athletics” (<http://www.ncaa.org/news/1982/19820315.pdf>). The suit alleged the NCAA was in violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Judge Charles R. Richey, U.S. District Court, District of Columbia, denied the request for preliminary relief on October 22, 1981 and declined their second request on February 18, 1982. The U.S. Court of Appeals then denied the AIAW’s emergency motion on February 26, 1982 (<http://www.ncaa.org/news/1982/19820315.pdf>). The courts ruled the market for women’s athletics was open for competition and therefore no anti-trust laws had been violated (A. F. Schubert, G.W. Schubert & D.L. Schubert-Madsen, 1991).

A group of women’s sports leaders, organized by The Women’s Sports Foundation, held The New Agenda Conference in Washington, DC in November of 1983. The stage set for this conference was similar to the stage set for the meeting, which founded the Women’s Division of the NAAF 60 years prior. The women were concerned that male leaders of sport were taking over women’s sport. This was brought on by the NCAA’s takeover of the AIAW earlier in the year. The topics at the 1983 conference were strikingly similar to the concerns in 1923, centering on the idea that women should lead women’s sporting activities because women know how to avoid the commercialism and corruption found in men’s sports (Cahn, 1994, p. 246-247). The difference between the two meetings was that the 1983 gathering had on its side a codified law stating females’ right to athletic opportunities within the

educational setting. Title IX of the Educational Act of 1972 addressed sex discrimination in education, making it illegal to fund male and female educational programs at different levels. While Title IX verbiage does not mention sports programs specifically, sports programs are part of the educational package Title IX regulates.

Leadership at the male-dominated NCAA spent significant money and choreographed lobbying efforts, against Title IX, which were directed at The U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. While their efforts were not successful in changing Title IX, they did successfully stall the enforcement program. Cahn writes, "As of 1979, seven years after the act's passage and amid continued shrill cries from male athletic leaders that Title IX presented a crisis 'of unprecedented magnitude,' not one school had been fined as much as a single dollar for failure to redress gender inequities in school athletics" ("An Odd Way to Even Things Up," *Sports Illustrated* 50, 1979, p.18-19). Her statement remains true in July of 2004.

"With 'real' sport and 'real' athletes defined as masculine, women of this century have occupied only a marginal space in the sports world and an even more tenuous position in athletic governance. Consequently many, perhaps even most, women have until recently been profoundly alienated from sport, and thus from the physical competence, confidence and pleasures that sport makes available. However, those women who persisted in athletics found in sport a positive, even life-transforming experience" (Cahn, 1994, p. 5).

During the time the AIAW and the NCAA were struggling for control of women's athletics, the federal government was attempting to formalize the implementation regulations for Title IX. The three-year delay between the passage of Title IX and its implementation was due to its interesting legislative history. Title IX was an amendment, not its own piece of legislation, brought to the floor of the United States Congress by Edith Green, (D-OR), during the debate over the Education Amendments of 1972. Title IX had no pre-enactment hearings. Representative Green introduced Title IX to the House of Representatives as an amended version of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VI prohibited discrimination based on race, color and national origin to any program receiving federal funding. Representative Green simply added the word sex to the statement and extended the coverage to educational programs receiving federal funding. Title IX was adopted without a committee report or formal hearing process. The legal conflicts, which have always surrounded Title IX, may be attributed to this lack of discussion to explore the intent of the law, prior to its passage (Orleans, 1996). "Title IX was handicapped from its inception, primarily because little legislative history surrounding the enactment is available" (Heckman, 1992, p.9). Sports and athletics were only briefly discussed on the floor of Congress during the discussion of the amendment. The impact Title IX would bring to intercollegiate athletics was not foreseen (Vargyas, 1994).

President Richard M. Nixon signed Title IX into law on June 23, 1972, with no controversy (Vargyas, 1994).

The issue of femininity for female athletes continues through this time period with the female athlete's power, strength, speed and endurance still considered to be masculine qualities. Corporate sponsors encourage female athletes to be feminine to reap the highest rewards in the sponsorship race. The Association of Volleyball Professionals (AVP) requires female participants to wear two-piece swimsuits during competition. While some of the participants complained, the leaders of the AVP saw the new rule as a way to attract more spectators to women's matches.

TITLE IX CHRONOLOGY

The following is a chronology outlining significant events in the history of Title IX, as outlined on the Women's Sports Foundation website.

1972

- Title IX of the Education Amendments is enacted by Congress and is signed into law by Richard Nixon. The sponsors of Title IX are Senator Birch Bayh (D-IN) and Representative Edith Green (D-OR). Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in any educational program or activity receiving any type of federal financial aid.

1974

- Senator John Tower (R-TX) proposes the "Tower Amendment," which would exempt revenue-producing sports from determinations of Title IX compliance. The amendment is rejected.
- In the spirit of Senator Tower's failed amendment, Senator Jacob Javits (R-

NY) submits an amendment directing the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare to issue regulations that provide for "reasonable provisions considering the nature of particular sports" (e.g., event-management needs, etc.) that clarifies that event and uniform expenditures on sports with larger crowds or more expensive equipment do not have to be matched in sports without similar needs (<http://bailiwick.lib.uiowa.edu/ge/historyRE.html>).

1975

- President Ford signs the Title IX athletics regulations and submits them for congressional review (pursuant to Section 431(d), (1) of the General Education Provisions Act).
- Representative James O'Hara (D-MI) introduces House Bill 8394, which proposes that sports revenues first be used to offset the cost of that sport, and only then to support other sports. The proposed change would effectively alter Title IX's coverage in athletics. This bill dies in committee before reaching the House floor.
- Congress reviews and approves Title IX regulations and rejects the following resolutions advanced to disapprove the athletics regulations:
- June 4: Title IX was presented to Congress in its present form.
- June 5 and June 17: Senator Jesse Helms (R-NC) (S. Con. Res. 46) and Representative Martin (H. Con. Res. 310) condemn Title IX in its entirety.

- June 17: Representative Martin (H. Con. Res. 311) disapproves of Title IX only as it pertains to intercollegiate athletics.
- July 16: Senators Paul Laxalt (R-NV), Carl T. Curtis (R-NE) and Paul Fannin (R-AZ), (S. Con. Res. 52) disapprove of the application of Title IX to intercollegiate athletics.
- July 21: Senator Helms introduces S. 2146 in an attempt to prohibit the application of Title IX regulations to athletics in situations in which participation in those athletic activities are not a required part of the institution's curriculum (Senator Helms re-introduced S. 2146 as S. 535 in 1977).
- Title IX federal regulations are issued in the area of athletics. High schools and colleges are given three years, and elementary schools one year, to comply.

1976

- NCAA challenges the legality of Title IX.

1977

- Senators John Tower (R-TX), Dewey Bartlett (R-OK), and Roman Hruska (R-NE) introduce Senate Bill (S. 2106), proposing to exclude revenue-producing sports from Title IX coverage. The bill dies in committee before reaching the Senate floor.

1978

- HEW issues proposed policy “Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics” for notice and comment.
- Deadline for high schools and colleges to comply with Title IX athletics requirements.

1979

- HEW issues final policy interpretation on “Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics.” Rather than relying exclusively on a presumption of compliance standard, the final policy focuses on each institution’s obligation to provide equal opportunity and details the factors to be considered in assessing actual compliance (Participation requirements are currently referred to as the “3-Prong-Test.”)

1980

- U.S. Department of Education is established and given oversight of Title IX through the OCR.

1984

- Grove City v. Bell limits the scope of Title IX, effectively taking away coverage of athletics except for athletic scholarships. The Supreme Court concludes that Title IX only applies to specific programs (i.e. Office of Student Financial Aid) that receive federal funds. Under this interpretation, athletic departments are not necessarily covered.

1988

- The Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987 is enacted into law despite the veto

of President Ronald Reagan. This act reverses Grove City, restoring Title IX's institution-wide coverage. If any program or activity in an educational institution receives federal funds, all of the institution's programs and activities must comply with Title IX.

- Haffer v. Temple University Title IX athletics lawsuit won by plaintiff female athletes gives new direction to athletic departments regarding their budgets, scholarships, and participation rates of male and female athletes.

1990

- Valerie M. Bonnette and Lamar Daniel author "A Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual," issued by the OCR.

1992

- In Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools, the Supreme Court rules that monetary damages are available under Title IX. Previously, only injunctive relief was available (i.e., the institution would be enjoined from discriminating in the future).
- Shortly after the Franklin decision, the NCAA completes and publishes a landmark Gender-Equity Study of its member institutions.

1994

- Senator Carol Mosley-Braun (D-IL) (S. 1468) and Representative Cardiss Collins (D-IL) (H.R. 921) sponsor the EADA, requiring that any co-educational institution of higher education that participates in any federal student financial aid program and that sponsors an intercollegiate athletics program must

disclose certain information concerning its intercollegiate athletics program. Under the EADA, annual reports are required.

1996

- OCR issues a clarification of the three-part “Effective Accommodation Test” that reiterates the requirements of the policy interpretation that institutions may choose any one of three independent tests to demonstrate that they are effectively accommodating the participation needs of the underrepresented gender.
- All institutions of higher education must make available, to all who inquire specific information on their intercollegiate athletics department, as required by the EADA.
- A federal appeals court upholds a lower court’s ruling in Cohen v. Brown University, holding that Brown University illegally discriminated against female athletes. Brown argues that it did not violate Title IX because women are less interested in sports than men. Both the district court and the court of appeals reject Brown’s argument. Many of the arguments offered by Brown are similar to those relied upon by colleges and universities all over the country.

1997

- Twenty-fifth anniversary of the passage of Title IX.

2001

- The Supreme Court issues a decision in Brentwood v. Tennessee Secondary School Athletic Association, holding that a high school athletic association is a

"state actor" and thus subject to the Constitution. This means, for example, that the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment applies to athletic associations in gender equity suits.

- Communities for Equity v. Michigan High School Athletic Association is decided, holding a state athletic association liable under Title IX, the Equal Protection Clause, and Michigan state law for discriminating against girls by forcing six girls' sports, but no boys' sports, teams to compete in nontraditional and/or disadvantageous seasons.

2002

- The National Wrestling Coaches Association, College Gymnastics Association, and the U.S. Track Coaches Association, along with several other groups representing male athletes and alumni of wrestling programs at Bucknell, Marquette, and Yale, filed suit alleging that Title IX regulations and policies are unconstitutional.
- The U.S. Department of Justice filed a motion to dismiss on narrow procedural grounds a complaint filed in federal court against the U.S. Department of Education attacking the three-prong test developed for schools to determine their compliance with Title IX in women's athletics programs.
- The U.S. Secretary of Education Rod Paige announced the establishment of a Commission on Opportunities in Athletics. The stated purpose of the Commission is "to collect information, analyze issues and obtain broad public input directed at improving the application of current Federal standards for

measuring equal opportunity for men and women and boys and girls to participate in athletics under Title IX (<http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/cgi-bin/iowa/issues/history/article.html?record=875>).

TITLE IX: ENFORCEMENT AND THE LEGAL SYSTEM

The role of the courts in defining and enforcing Title IX in the arena of higher education athletics would not seem to be difficult since it was preceded by significant Civil Rights legislation, Title VI and Title VII. Court rulings relating to these Civil Rights cases might have provided guidance, which lower court opinions finally provided in the late 1990s. Title IX began with little progress in the method of enforcement. The slow progress began in 1979 and lasted for about 20 years.

The presidential administrations of Gerald Ford, Jimmy Carter and Ronald Reagan each hesitated in their enforcement of Title IX. President Ford failed to act on Title IX regulations; President Carter was slow in dealing with policy interpretation; and President Reagan was slow on all fronts related to Title IX (Orleans, 1996). By the end of the Reagan Administration the public was confused about Title IX and had little confidence in its ability to bring about gender equity (Orleans).

Title IX may be enforced through three identified methods:

1. The institution's designated Title IX officer, who may initiate an in-house complaint.
2. The Office of Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education, which

accepts administrative complaints from individuals, then issues a letter of resolution to the institution outlining what must occur to correct the offense.

3. An individual with legal standing may file a lawsuit (Cotton & Wilde, 1997).

In 1992, the case of Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools 112 S. Ct. 1028 (1992) established that compensatory and punitive damages are available to those who suffer intentional gender discrimination. While the Supreme Court did not indicate a specific method for measuring damages in a Title IX case, it did indicate monetary damages as a possibility, not limited to back pay and prospective relief. Because of this ruling, the number of plaintiffs choosing the private right of action has increased (Cotton & Wilde, 1997).

The most important case in the early Title IX years was Grove City College v. Bell (465 U.S. 555, 104 S.Ct. 1211 (1984)). The Grove City case asked the question of whether Title IX applied only to specific departments that receive direct federal funding or whether it applied to any department within an institution that benefited from federal funding. President Ronald Reagan brought a much more conservative way of thinking to the White House when he was elected. This case was filed during the Carter Administration, prior to Reagan's election and the Department of Education was operating in an era of protecting civil rights laws. When Reagan was elected, the Department of Education took an about face and agreed with Grove City that Title IX did not cover the broad umbrella of the institution, but rather the specific program receiving federal funds. The ruling in the

Grove City case allowed athletic departments to operate in a status exempt from Title IX compliance. Several colleges, no longer fearing federal sanctions, reduced scholarships to their female athletes (Halpern, 1995). While not all universities immediately cut their programs, there was a prevailing belief that athletic departments could now get away with doing less for their female athletes (Festle, 1996). In an interesting corollary to the Grove City decision, the Department of Education suspended 40 Title IX investigations immediately following the announcement (Wickerham, 1998). OCR no longer sought to enforce Title IX in intercollegiate athletics, so women's athletic programs could not use Title IX in their favor to work against discrimination (Wickerham).

In 1983 Auburn University, a member of the Southeastern Athletic Conference was determined to be in serious violation of Title IX, in almost every category. One year later, after the Grove City decision, Auburn officials received a letter from the OCR explaining the previously identified discrimination was no longer under the jurisdiction of Title IX (Festle, 1996).

After a major public outcry to both the Office of Civil Rights and Congress, the Congress agreed to re-evaluate Title IX. The ensuing Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987, which failed on its first four attempts, restored the original intent of Title IX. The Restoration Act re-instituted the idea that if an institution received federal funds for *any* program area; they must comply with Title IX in their athletic department. The Restoration Act broadly defined the terms program and activity, which gave Title IX the authority the Grove City decision had removed. President Ronald Reagan

vetoed the Act after it passed both the House and the Senate. Congress generated the necessary votes to override the presidential veto. Congress cited the necessity to broaden the application of Title IX, which the judicial branch had greatly narrowed. In the Act, Congress noted that the legislative action was necessary “to restore the prior consistent and long-standing executive branch interpretation and broad, institution-wide application of those laws as previously administered” (Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1988, 20 U.S.C. § 1687 (1994)).

In 1992, a group of Brown University volleyball and gymnastics female athletes filed a suit in federal district court (Cohen v. Brown University, 809 F. Supp. 978 (D.R.R. 1992), *aff'd*, stay dissolved, remanded, 991 F. 2d 888 (1st Cir. R.I. 1993), 879 F. Supp. 185 (1995), 101 F. 3d 155 (1st Cir. 1996)). They sought a preliminary injunction against Brown University, to reinstate their teams to full varsity status, from club sports status. The athletes won their suit at the district court level. Judge Raymond Pettine of the United States District Court in Rhode Island concluded Brown University had violated Title IX by not providing equal opportunities for men and women to participate in intercollegiate athletics. When Judge Pettine applied the three key areas to the Cohen case, he found Brown University to have violated all three areas. Pettine ordered Brown to restore the women’s volleyball and gymnastics teams to full varsity status. In 1993, Brown University appealed the case to the United States Court of Appeals for the First Circuit. The Court of Appeals upheld the district court’s decision for a preliminary injunction, pending a trial on the merits.

In September 1994, the district court conducted a trial on the merits of the athletes' concerns and found in favor of the athletes and Brown University to be in violation of Title IX's mandate to provide equal athletic opportunity. Judge Pettine determined Brown had violated Title IX by failing to accommodate effectively the interests and abilities of women athletes, and by failing to increase steadily the number of opportunities for women. Brown had made huge advances in women's athletics in the 1970s, but had failed to add any women's opportunities since 1982. Brown also showed a 13.01% difference between the number of women undergraduates enrolled and the number of women participating in the athletic program. The athletes argued the court should use the rule of substantially proportionate, against the university. The athletes argued the definition of participation opportunity is a "potential slot provided for interested and qualified women" (Cohen v. Brown University, 809 F. Supp. 978 (D.R.R. 1992), aff'd, stay dissolved, remanded, 991 F. 2d 888 (1st Cir. R.I. 1993), 879 F. Supp. 185 (1995), 101 F. 3d 155 (1st Cir. 1996)). Attorneys for Brown argued that to continue to create slots for women, when not all of the existing slots are filled, is unnecessary. Judge Pettine agreed with the athletes' definition of participation opportunity. He gave Brown University 120 days to submit a plan in which it would become Title IX compliant.

In 1996, Brown once again appealed the decision, but once again the First Circuit upheld the district court's decision. Brown contended Judge Pettine was attempting to micromanage their athletic department. The circuit court determined

Title IX was not an affirmative action statute, but rather an anti-discrimination statute. The court interpreted Title IX as requiring no preferences or quotas; therefore no affirmative action was required.

The University of Texas at Austin was involved in a Title IX challenge in 1993. The suit alleged a failure by the university to fully and effectively accommodate the female students' interests and abilities. In the class action suit, Sanders v. University of Texas at Austin, Civil No. A-92-CA-405 (W.D. Tex. Oct. 24, 1993), the university agreed to raise women's participation opportunities from 23% to 44%, or to come to a point within three percentage points of the 47% of female undergraduate student population, within three years. This was accomplished in part by adding women's softball and soccer and upgrading club sports such as rowing, to varsity status. At the same time the University agreed to increase the percentage of athletic scholarship dollars from 32% to 42% over a five-year period. This plan was acceptable to the court as a resolution to the lawsuit.

Female student athletes are not the only ones filing lawsuits challenging Title IX. Male intercollegiate athletic teams have been eliminated in an effort to bring athletic programs into compliance under the proportionality prong.

In the summer of 1993, the University of Illinois, citing budget issues as the main reason, decided to eliminate men's swimming and fencing and men's and women's diving. The suit (Kelley v. Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois, 35 F. 3d 265 (7th Cir. 1994), cert denied, 115 S. Ct. 938 (1995)) filed by members of the men's swimming team was the first suit filed by male participants seeking restoration

of a men's athletic team, under Title IX. The male swimmers said they were discriminated against due to their gender, since the women's swimming team was not cut. The district court judge, Joe Billy McDade, found in favor of the University of Illinois. McDade cited the fact that the male population at the university was 56%, while males made up 76.6% of the athlete population. Since the proportionality was out of line, the University of Illinois was eliminating the men's swimming team in an effort to come into compliance with Title IX. Since males were in the over represented gender, the university was not breaking any laws or regulations. Title IX, as interpreted by Judge McDade, was designed to remedy gender discrimination against under-represented groups. The athletes appealed the district court decision to the United States Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit. The athletes argued Title IX had become a statute mandating discrimination against males. The athletes argued academic departments should be gender-equal, as the athletic department is required to be.

The court of appeals ruled the statistical balance of proportionality merely created the assumption an institution was in compliance, when in reality it was not. The court upheld the district court's ruling, supporting the University of Illinois' decisions. In 1994, the student swimmers appealed to the Supreme Court, but the Supreme Court refused to hear their case.

In Gonyo v. Drake University, 837 F. Supp. 989 (S.D. Iowa 1993), a group of male wrestlers sought an injunction requiring Drake to reinstate the men's wrestling program, which the institution had decided to drop. The students' request was

denied and the court determined reinstatement of the men's wrestling program was inappropriate since it would create an even higher disproportionate number of athletic opportunities for Drake male students.

While some institutions have chosen to drop men's programs in an effort to come into compliance, proponents of Title IX would argue that was not the original intent of the law. To drop men's sport opportunities, instead of adding women's opportunities, creates a poor situation for male athletes, as well. The Office of Civil Rights maintains Title IX never required athletic departments to cut men's sports. The intent was, and still is, to create opportunities for female athletes.

The one sport, which throws off the proportionality and equality figures, is football. There is no women's sport offering as many opportunities for female athletes or anywhere near the number of coaching opportunities. Some Title IX opponents have argued that football should be removed from the formula determining athletic opportunities. Title IX proponents disagree.

Most everyone, on both sides of Title IX, agrees with the idea of equal opportunities for both male and female athletes. The challenge arises in the means to reaching that end. The courts in the Cohen and Kelley cases seem to have made the proportionality issue, more important than financial assistance and other athletic benefits.

THE EQUITY IN ATHLETICS DISCLOSURE ACT

This section discusses the function of the EADA form, challenges with the form and how it has evolved into the document used at present.

In 1991, the NCAA surveyed its member institutions regarding expenditures on men and women's athletics. It was not the goal of the NCAA survey to measure Title IX compliance, but the information did provide a basis of comparison between women's and men's athletic programs (http://www.ncaa.org/library/research/gender_equity_study/1999-00/1999-00_gender_equity_report.pdf). One year after this study, the executive director of the NCAA formed a gender equity task force and charged them with:

1. Defining gender equity
2. Examining NCAA policies in relation to gender equity
3. Recommending a path toward measuring and achieving gender equity in intercollegiate athletics.

The task force recommended repeating the gender equity survey of the membership, every five years.

In 1994, the U.S. Congress passed the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act, requiring all coeducational institutions of higher education, that participate in any Title IV, federal student financial aid program, and sponsor intercollegiate athletics programs, to annually complete an EADA form, which provides specific information on these programs (<http://www.ed.gov/offices/OPE/PPI/eada.html>).

In October of 1994, President Bill Clinton signed the Gender-Equity Disclosure Act into law. This legislation is part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and amends the Higher Education Act of 1965 (Blum, 1995). This law

requires the EADA information to be made available to the public. The Department of Education receives the EADA forms and posts them to their website for public viewing. NCAA research staff and members of the Committee on Women's Athletics have worked with representatives from the federal government to "ensure the most accurate and appropriate data are being collected" ([http://www.ncaa.org/library/research/gender equity study/1999-00/1999-00_gender equity report.pdf](http://www.ncaa.org/library/research/gender_equity_study/1999-00/1999-00_gender_equity_report.pdf)). While the NCAA collects and analyzes EADA data every year, they only publish the NCAA Gender Equity Study every other year. On the odd years, the NCAA publishes the Revenues and Expenses of Intercollegiate Athletic Programs Report ([http://www.ncaa.org/library/research/gender equity study/1999-00/1999-00_gender equity report.pdf](http://www.ncaa.org/library/research/gender_equity_study/1999-00/1999-00_gender_equity_report.pdf)).

The Equity in Athletics Disclosure website is sponsored by the Office of Postsecondary Education of the U.S. Department of Education. It was authorized by Congress with the 1998 amendments to the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA) to help prospective students and their families' research athletic opportunities on various college campuses. Under the HEA, the Secretary of Education is required to collect financial and statistical information on men and women's intercollegiate sports and make that information available to the public (<http://ope.ed.gov/athletics/>).

The EADA is designed to make prospective students aware of the school commitment to providing equitable athletic opportunities for its men and women students. The EADA requires schools to make the report available upon request to

students, potential students, and the public. Prospective student athletes can search the EADA website for information about colleges based on the location, program, size or degree offerings. The information can be searched by one variable or in any combination of the eight variables listed. (<http://ope.ed.gov/athletics/Search.asp>).

The EADA has been a mandatory requirement of intercollegiate athletic departments since the 1995-96 school year.

University officials are directed to the EADA website (<http://surveys.ope.ed.gov/athletics/index.asp>) to fill out their EADA form each year. The form is due no later than October 15. The form requests information in four main areas:

1. Participants and Operating Expenses
2. Coaching Staff
3. Revenues and Expenses
4. Coaches Salaries

In each of these sections the information is solicited by sport and gender.

The EADA reporting process begins in August each year, when the U.S. Department of Education mails user identification names and passwords to each university required to fill out the form. The website used for EADA collection is opened for information input by athletic administrators during the months of

September and October. The Department of Education files their completed report with Congress in December each year.

The methodology for the statistical analysis for this paper is included in Chapter Three. This chapter will encompass the methods used to analyze the EADA data quantitatively using SPSS software and qualitatively through an online survey of selected senior woman administrators. After analyzing the information from the EADA forms, the researcher will attempt to identify common characteristics among the institutions, which have made the most progress toward gender equity over the past three years.

Chapter III

Methodology

The general purpose of this research was to examine selected gender-equity factors in intercollegiate athletics in the NCAA Division I-A during the years 2001-2003 and to measure gender equity changes within the NCAA Division I-A. The researcher attempted to identify common characteristics among NCAA Division I-A institutions, which moved toward gender equity, as based on the data reported in their 2001-2003 EADA reports. While this study was not designed to measure Title IX compliance for NCAA Division I-A institutions, the data provided a basis for comparison of men and women's intercollegiate programs concerning gender equity.

Three years of information, gathered from EADA forms from NCAA Division I-A institutions, was examined to determine if NCAA Division I-A universities are increasing their opportunities for female athletes.

For the purposes of this study, NCAA Division I-A institutions were compared as a group.

SUBJECTS

The primary subjects were the 162 institutions in the NCAA Division I-A. The subjects (institutions) were reviewed and compared based on the information provided in each institution's 2000-2001, 2001-2002, 2002-2003 EADA forms.

Pamela Maimer, EADA researcher for the U.S. Department of Education, provided the databases.

The secondary subjects who were directly surveyed, were 34 senior woman administrators (SWAs) from three Bowl Championship Series (BCS) eligible, NCAA Division I-A athletic conferences. Each SWA agreed to the researcher's informed consent form prior to completing the online survey (Appendix B). The subjects indirectly surveyed were the athletic directors and the compliance directors at the institutions making up the NCAA Division I-A. One of these two positions generally completes the EADA form, while the athletic director would give final approval to the information provided. In some cases the president of the university or the senior business administrator also play a role in the approval process.

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

The EADA forms from the 117 institutions making up the NCAA Division I-A served as the primary survey instrument for this study. This annual survey (EADA) compiles information regarding factors such as:

1. Operating expenses within NCAA Division I-A institution's athletic department, delineated by sport, dollar amount and gender;
2. The number of undergraduates attending each NCAA Division I-A institution, delineated by gender;
3. Athletics participation within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by sport and gender;

4. Recruiting expenditures within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by dollar amount and gender;
5. Athletic student aid (scholarships) within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by dollar amount and gender;
6. Average head coaches' salaries within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by dollar amount and team gender;
7. Average assistant coaches' salaries within the NCAA Division I-A, delineated by dollar amount and team gender.

The researcher contacted Corey Bray, the assistant director of research for the NCAA research staff, to discuss the EADA survey and to inquire about whether the instrument would provide a fair comparison point for the intended research. Mr. Bray agreed the EADA is the most complete document available for gender-equity data. He also advised the researcher to contact the NCAA's EADA administrator, Maria deJulio, in Kansas City, Kansas, as the expert in the field (Phone call on March 10, 2003, to the NCAA headquarters in Indianapolis, IN).

In a telephone call to Maria deJulio, she agreed the EADA data gives the most complete information by which to measure gender equity in intercollegiate athletics (Phone call on November 13, 2003 to Ms. deJulio's home in Kansas City, KS).

A secondary survey instrument was administered online to the senior woman administrators (SWAs) at 34 NCAA BCS Division I-A institutions. Because of the expense and time involved in studying the total population of interest, researchers

must settle for studying a sample of people who presumably represent the sought after population. This group provided the researcher with a population of interest, meaning the entire group had characteristics that interested the researcher (Borg; J. P. Gall & M. D. Gall, 1993). Survey research typically employs surveys and interviews to determine opinions, attitudes, preferences and perceptions of a population of interest to the researcher (Borg; J. P. Gall & M. D. Gall). The main characteristic the researcher sought was an interest in gender equity in NCAA Division I-A institutions.

This survey instrument was developed especially for this research study. The sequence of steps for development of the SWA survey included:

1. A preliminary SWA survey was developed using input from two experts in the field who were either a current or past NCAA Division I SWA.
2. An expert in research design and statistical analysis examined the survey and made suggestions about the proper scaling technique and wording of options for the answers from which the SWAs would choose.
3. Two experts (doctoral committee members) examined the survey
4. The survey was field tested on a test group of NCAA Division I SWAs.
5. The final version of the SWA survey was posted to the web and an email was sent to the conference-level SWAs to request they ask

the institutional-level SWAs to complete the survey.

Survey methodology was chosen for this part of the study for the following reasons:

1. To ask the same questions of participants in this part of the study (McDonald, 1991).
2. To use descriptive research for summarizing and analyzing collected data.
3. To report the results of each question with a larger number of inputs (Dr. Bizhan Nasseh, Ball State University, Muncie, IN, 1996, <http://www.bsu.edu/classes/nassah/test200/method.html>).

The questionnaire included both the closed form, which permits the person being surveyed to choose a limited (multiple choice) response, and the open form, which permits the participant to supply a response in her own words. The SWAs' perceptions were measured using an ordinal scale of one to five. One reflected that the SWA did not consider the factor significant, while five reflected the factor was significant. "An ordinal scale entails the assignment of numbers to persons or objects so they reflect their rank ordering on an attribute in question" (Pedhazer & Schmelkin, p. 19).

This survey inquired about their perception concerning factors, which the EADA data showed may lead to gender equity progress over the years 2001 to 2003. The researcher, with the endorsement of two conference-level senior woman administrators, sought a high return rate on the online survey. (One conference-level SWA was not available for consultation.) Out of 34 participants invited, 22 responses translate to a 64.7% return rate. . One of the conference-level SWAs suggested the

survey ask between five and seven questions to give the study a better chance to attain a high participation rate (Phone call to the conference office on June 9, 2003, 2:00 p.m.).

STATISTICAL DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

SPSS data management software was used to compare the data and create charts to display the comparisons of information. The data were synthesized and analyzed using descriptive survey research methods.

Descriptive survey research was appropriate for data derived from simple observational situations, whether actually observed or observed through the benefit of questionnaire or poll techniques (Leedy, 1989). “The descriptive method of research is fact finding with interpretation. It may take forms such as a...school survey, case or case-group study, job analysis, documentary or informational analysis, legal research and other forms and types of reflective thinking” (Hill & Kerber, 1967, p. 108).

The purpose of conducting descriptive research was: (a) to acquire documentation concerning the existing situation, (b) to identify standards or norms with which to contrast present conditions, in order to plan future steps, or (c) to determine how to take these future steps (Hill & Kerber). All of the above purposes were considered useful to this study.

In their book on descriptive statistics, Herman J. Loether and Donald G. McTavish wrote, “The first basic theme is that the results of analysis depend heavily on the quality of data” (Loether & McTavish, 1974, p. 360). They continue by

explaining that no matter how skillful the statistical study, if the original data are biased or unreliable, the study is worthless. Because the EADA form began its eighth year in the fall of 2003, and has undergone revisions on several occasions, this data are assumed to be valid. (The NCAA researcher and the EADA forms administrator both offered their assistance in interpreting the data, in the unexpected occurrence of statistical challenges with the selected EADA forms.)

The data studied in this report were provided by the U.S. Department of Education. The data were collected via the U.S. Department of Education website, as provided by each NCAA institution. The U.S. Department of Education validates the data, then posts the validated data to its website no later than December 15 of each year. The data were provided to this researcher on a disk prepared by the U.S. Department of Education staff and is confirmed to be valid data.

The researcher compared the following sections of the EADA data to determine factors leading to improvement in gender equity:

1. Percentage of the total athletic department operating expenses allocated to women's sports;
2. Percentage of female athletes participating in NCAA Division I-A athletic programs compared to the institutions' undergraduate population;
3. Percentage of the total athletic department recruiting budget allocated to female athletes;

4. Percentage of the total athletic department athletically-related student aid budget allocated to female athletes;
5. Average salaries for full-time head coaches for men and women's teams;
6. Average salaries for full-time assistant coaches for men and women's teams.

The institutional averages for NCAA Division I-A schools were assessed to determine the changes in gender-equity from within the NCAA Division I-A. These statistics were then compared to similar statistics from NCAA Division I-A in the 2002 NCAA gender-equity survey.

At the conclusion of the research, information was provided to the NCAA, the U.S. Department of Education and the senior woman administrators who participated in the study.

Graphic display charts were created for:

1. Average overall operating expenses for all NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;
2. Average percentage of athletes who are female from NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;

3. Average overall recruiting expenses by athlete gender for all NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;
4. Average overall expenses for athletically-related student aid (scholarships) by athlete gender for all NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;
5. Average salary for full-time head coaches for all NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;
6. Average salary for full-time assistant coaches for all NCAA Division I-A institutions in each of the three years in the study, with a listing of the 10 institutions that made the most significant positive percentage change from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003;
7. The composite responses from the SWAs on the closed end questions concerning progress made using the numeric value selected;

In Chapter Four the researcher will outline the results from the statistical analysis of the EADA forms and the SWAs' online survey. This chapter will encompass an explanation of the data from the seven independent variables of the

EADA data. The researcher will discuss the common characteristics identified by the SPSS analysis, shared among institutions that have made the most progress toward gender equity over the past three years. The researcher will display this information in bar chart format showing each of the three years on the same chart for comparison. In addition the ten institutions which made the most positive change, benefiting female athletes, in each category will be listed in table format.

Chapter IV

Results

This study focused on the EADA information from NCAA Division I-A institutions from 2001-2003. The results presented in this chapter are based upon the findings from that study. Statistical analysis was performed in the following areas of the EADA data:

1. Operating expenses
2. Women's participation rate
3. Recruiting expenses
4. Athletically-related student aid
5. Head coaches' salaries
6. Assistant coaches' salaries

Statistical analysis was also performed on results from an online survey of 34 NCAA Division I-A SWAs.

The information is presented in figures and tables for the three school years studied. The data reflect the changes in various aspects related to gender-equity in NCAA Division I-A institutions.

OPERATING EXPENSES

Figure 1 illustrates the average total operating expenses for NCAA Division I-A institutions and the percentage of the total operating expenses allocated to men and women's athletic programs over the three-year period. This total operating expenses figure includes all aspects of operating the athletic program and can serve as a beginning point for the discussion of gender-equity. This figure includes athletic student aid, game guarantees, options paid, salaries, recruiting expenses, all aspects of team travel, equipment, uniforms, supplies and the cost of officials.

While the women's team operating expenses were reported to have increased 3.18% from 2001 to 2002, they decreased by 3.30% from 2002 to 2003. There was a net loss over the time of the study of .12%

Figure 1: Gender Comparison in Operating Expenses

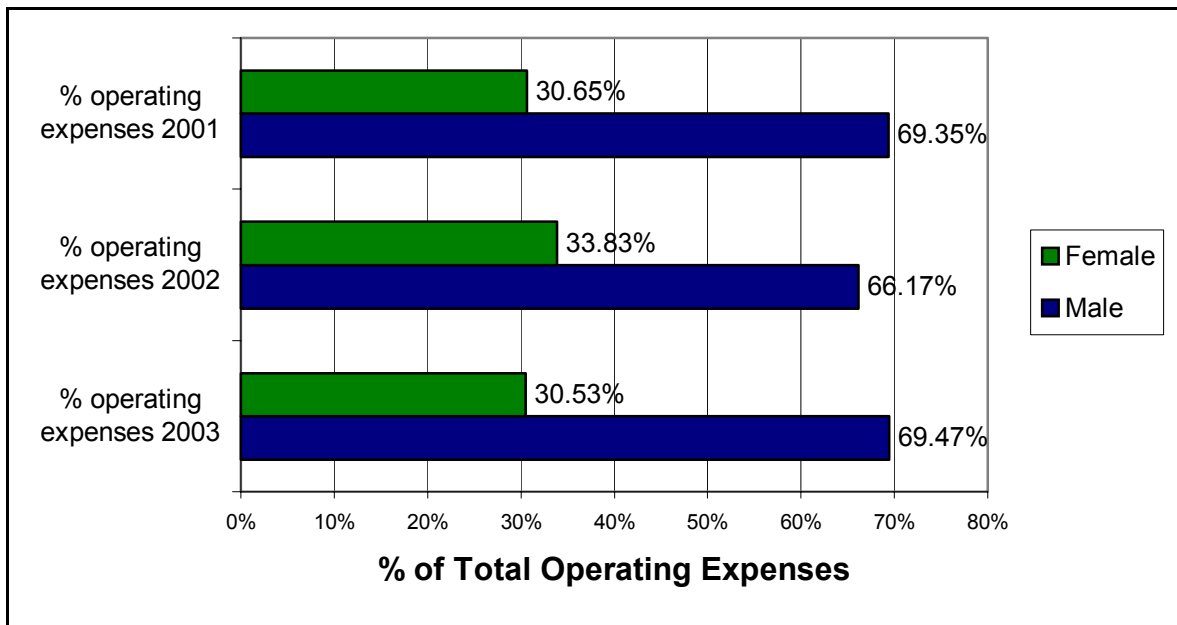


Table 1 outlines the 10 institutions, which made the greatest change in operating expenses from 2001 to 2002 and from 2002 to 2003. (All of the institutions listed on the top 10 lists in this paper are those that enacted the largest positive percentage change in favor of the women’s athletic program, not necessarily those with the largest dollar figure in that category.)

Table 1: Top 10 – Operating Expenses

Institution Name	% Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	% Increase 2002-2003
1. Pittsburgh	14.58%	1. St. John’s	16.01%
2. Eastern Michigan	14.17%	2. Bowling Green	8.59%
3. UCLA	13.90%	3. Troy State	8.26%
4. Oklahoma State	13.44%	4. Rice	6.40%
5. Kansas State	13.19%	5. Ohio University	5.83%
6. Nevada - Reno	13.00%	6. Syracuse	5.66%
7. Iowa State	12.38%	7. University of Miami	5.41%
8. Arizona	12.17%	8. San Jose State	5.20%
9. Mississippi	11.63%	9. Colorado State	5.18%
10. Oregon State	11.21%	10. Brigham Young	4.96%

WOMEN’S PARTICIPATION RATE

Figure 2 displays the average percentage of male and female undergraduate students enrolled at NCAA Division I-A institutions. The percentage of male and female students in the undergraduate population is important in the discussion

concerning gender equity because it is one way an institution may come into Title IX compliance. One of the three ways an institution may show Title IX compliance is to offer athletic participation opportunities in proportion to the gender make-up of the undergraduate student population. Under this theory, if the undergraduate student population is 52% female, then 52% of the athletic participation opportunities should go to female students.

Figure 2 also shows athletic participation opportunities in Division I-A institutions by gender. While the percentage of male undergraduate students figures to be around 47% over this three-year period, the percentage of athletic participation opportunities for males averaged over 56%. The percentage of female undergraduate students is approximately 52%, while the percentage of female athletic participation opportunities was averaged to 43%. The female athletic participation figures increased minimally each year, totaling to a 1.3% increase from 2001 to 2003.

Figure 2: Gender Comparison of Undergrad Population & Athletes

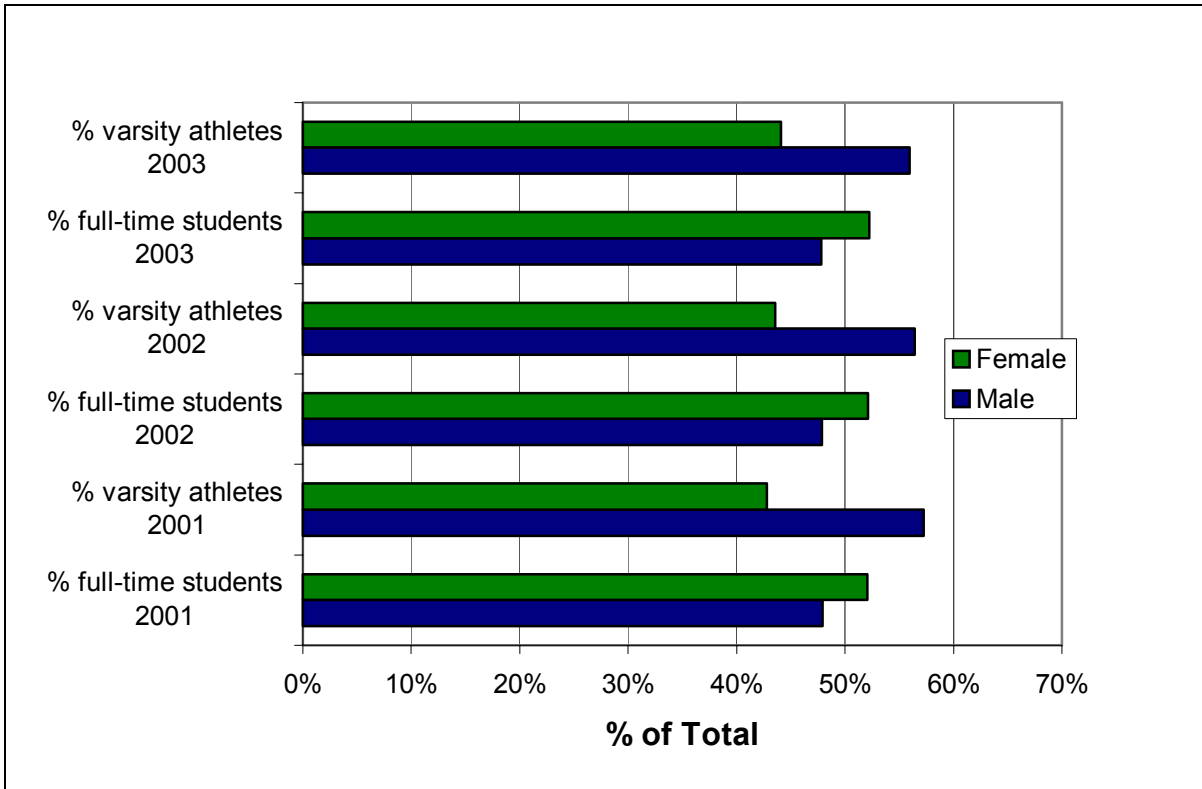


Table 2 shows the top 10 institutions that have increased their women's participation opportunities the most from 2001 to 2002 and from 2002 to 2003.

Table 2: Top 10 – Women's Participation Opportunities

Institution Name	% Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	% Increase 2002-2003
1. Central Florida	9.11%	1. Bowling Green	10.14%
2. Akron	8.13%	2. Hawaii	9.66%
3. Southern Mississippi	7.21%	3. Tulane	9.30%

4. Nevada-Reno	7.01%	4. St. John's	8.13%
5. Florida State	6.21%	5. New Mexico	7.53%
6. New Mexico	5.35%	6. Georgia	5.66%
7. UCLA	5.16%	7. Boise State	4.67%
8. University of Miami	5.12%	8. Virginia	4.59%
9. Iowa State	4.96%	9. North Texas	4.36%
10. West Virginia	4.65%	10. Troy State	4.22%

RECRUITING EXPENSES

Figure 3 evaluates recruiting expenses between men's teams and women's teams at NCAA Division I-A institutions. This figure shows the average men and women's recruiting expenses. The women's athletic recruiting expenses showed an increase of 1.18% from 2001 to 2003.

Figure 3. Gender Comparison in Allocated Recruiting Budget

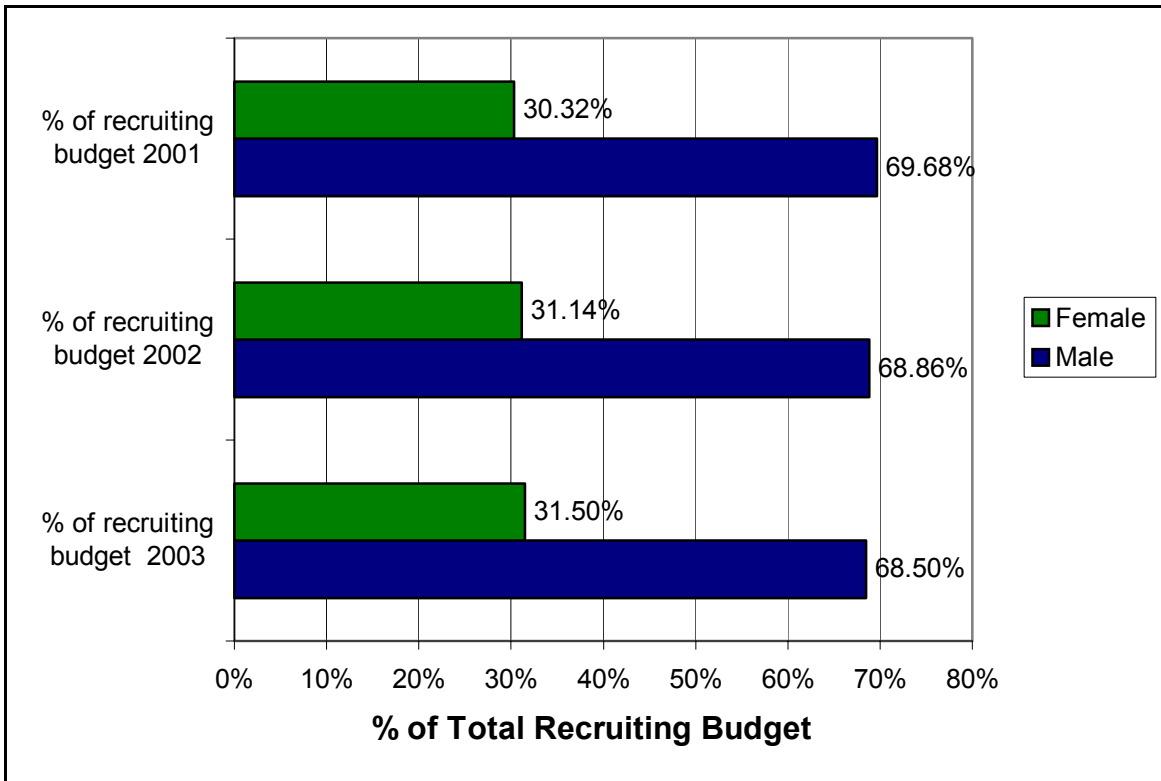


Table 3 lists the top 10 institutions that have increased their women’s recruiting budget the most from 2001 to 2002 and from 2002 to 2003.

Table 3: Top 10 – Women’s Recruiting Budget Increase

Institution Name	% Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	% Increase 2002-2003
1. Temple University	14.58%	1. Utah State	14.11%
2. North Carolina State	13.95%	2. Boise State	12.52%
3. Kentucky	11.93%	3. Maryland	11.18%
4. Louisiana Tech	10.06%	4. Tulane	10.88%

5. Louisville	8.89%	5. Alabama-Birmingham	9.26%
6. Virginia	8.72%	6. West Virginia	8.73%
7. Indiana	8.68%	7. New Mexico	8.64%
8. Utah	8.21%	8. Western Michigan	7.77%
9. Colorado	7.83%	9. Eastern Michigan	7.25%
10. Kansas State	7.80%	10. Middle Tenn. State	7.11%

ATHLETICALLY RELATED STUDENT AID

Figure 4 is a synopsis of the data analysis concerning athletically related student aid (scholarships). The average percentage allocated to each gender is shown in relation to the average total NCAA Division I-A athletically related student aid granted. From 2001 to 2003 women’s athletic student aid increased less than 1%.

Figure 4. Gender Comparison in Athletic Student Aid (Scholarships)

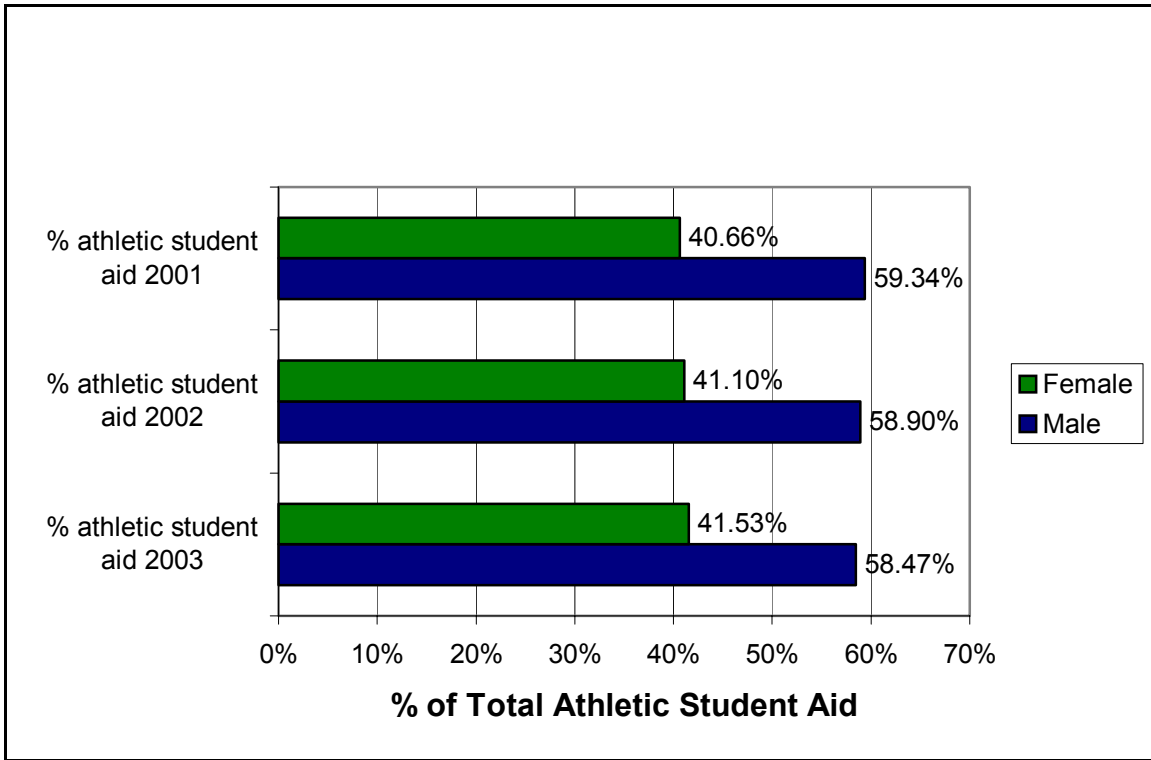


Table 3 lists the top 10 institutions that have increased their women’s athletic student aid (scholarships) budget the most from 2001 to 2002 and from 2002 to 2003.

Table 4: Top 10 – Women’s Athletic Student Aid Increase

Institution Name	% Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	% Increase 2002-2003
1. University of Miami	4.74%	1. Southern Mississippi	5.72%
2. Iowa State	4.28%	2. South Florida	4.49%
3. LSU	4.16%	3. Louisiana Tech	4.44%
4. Memphis	3.83%	4. Bowling Green	4.23%

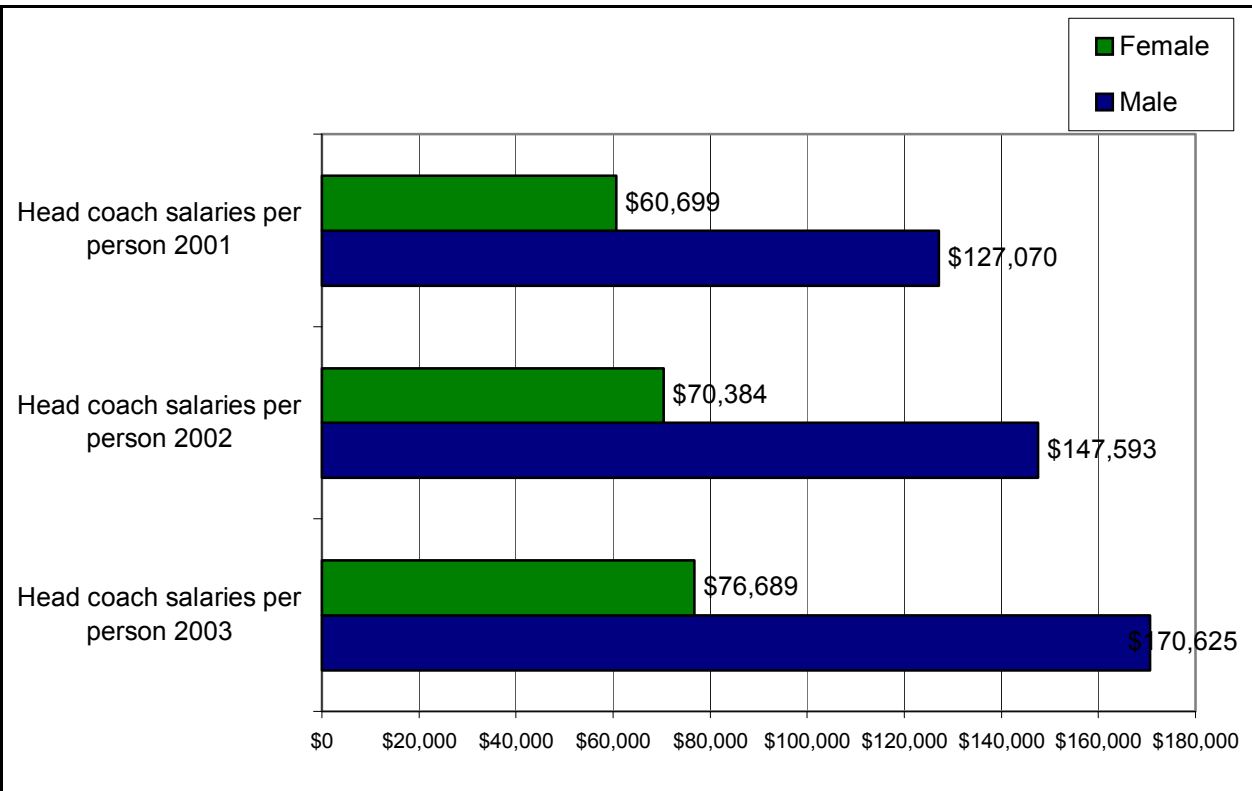
5. Akron	3.78%	5. Texas - Austin	4.05%
6. Michigan State	3.73%	6. San Diego State	3.44%
7. Clemson	3.39%	7. St. John's	3.34%
8. Eastern Michigan	3.39%	8. East Carolina	3.27%
9. Cal State - Fresno	3.15%	9. Utah State	3.21%
10. Virginia	3.11%	10. Toledo	3.15%

HEAD COACH SALARIES

Coaches' salaries, both head coaches and assistant coaches, represent the largest disparity in monetary allocation, between men and women's athletic programs. Each institution reports salary data as an average of all of its men's team head coaches and its women's team head coaches. The coaches reported in Figures 5 and 6 are considered to be full time employees of the athletic department, with coaching as their primary job duty. This information is reported based on the gender of the team coached, not the gender of the coach. For instance a male softball coach's salary would be reported in the women's data, since softball is a sport played by women. For the most part, men coach both male and female teams, while women coach only female teams.

Figure 5 shows the average pay for men's team head coaches at NCAA Division I-A schools as increasing \$43,555 from 2001 to 2003. While women's team head coaches also saw an increase, their average salary increase from 2001 to 2003 was significantly lower at \$16,990.

Figure 5. Gender Comparison in Head Coach Salaries per Person



Tables 5A and 5B show the top 10 institutions in increased head coach salaries by gender from 2001 to 2002 and 2002 to 2003. Interestingly, the same institutions lead both lists for both years.

The researcher contacted St. John's University associate athletic director for business operations, Ann Kiely, to seek information concerning possible reasons for St. John's leading the NCAA Division I-A in men's and women's head coach salaries and men's and women's assistant coach salaries in the study comparing 2001 data to 2002 data. Kiely reported the men's head coaches' salary jump was due in part the success of the men's basketball team in the NCAA tournament. The men's

basketball head coach at St. John's had a bonus structure in his contract which was paid that year. The change in the men's assistant coaches' salaries was also attributed to the success of the men's basketball team and bonuses awarded to the men's basketball assistant coaches. The increase in the women's head coaches' and assistant coaches' salaries was credited to a completely new coaching staff for women's basketball. The new staff received higher salaries than the staff they replaced (Phone call on June 24, 2004, to St. John's University in Jamaica, NY).

Table 5A: Top 10 – Men's Head Coach Salaries per Person

Institution Name	\$ Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	\$ Increase 2002-2003
1. St. John's	\$938,924	1. Connecticut	\$1,640,862
2. Tennessee	\$306,079	2. Louisiana - Lafayette	\$923,487
3. Washington State	\$154,735	3. Texas A&M	\$315,018
4. Virginia	\$134,017	4. Baylor	\$235,831
5. Iowa State	\$111,965	5. Washington State	\$232,157
6. Arkansas	\$87,776	6. Kansas	\$193,727
7. Alabama	\$82,031	7. Iowa	\$176,668
8. Texas - Austin	\$79,801	8. Colorado	\$165,418
9. Wisconsin	\$62,850	9. Nebraska	\$141,369
10. Michigan State	\$61,693	10. Oklahoma State	\$123,788

Table 5B: Top 10 – Women’s Head Coach Salaries per Person

Institution Name	\$ Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	\$ Increase 2002-2003
1. St. John's	\$241,943	1. Connecticut	\$1,317,578
2. Florida	\$46,118	2. Vanderbilt	\$54,857
3. Tennessee	\$33,411	3. Baylor	\$51,344
4. Brigham Young	\$30,498	4. California - Berkeley	\$31,724
5. LSU	\$24,706	5. Nebraska	\$25,982
6. Colorado	\$22,368	6. Hawaii	\$22,565
7. Virginia	\$19,681	7. Texas - Austin	\$19,373
8. Ohio State	\$19,087	8. Louisville	\$17,149
9. Alabama	\$14,798	9. Indiana	\$14,770
10. Central Michigan	\$13,798	10. Virginia Tech	\$14,089

ASSISTANT COACH SALARIES

Figure 6. Gender Comparison Assistant Coach Salaries per Person

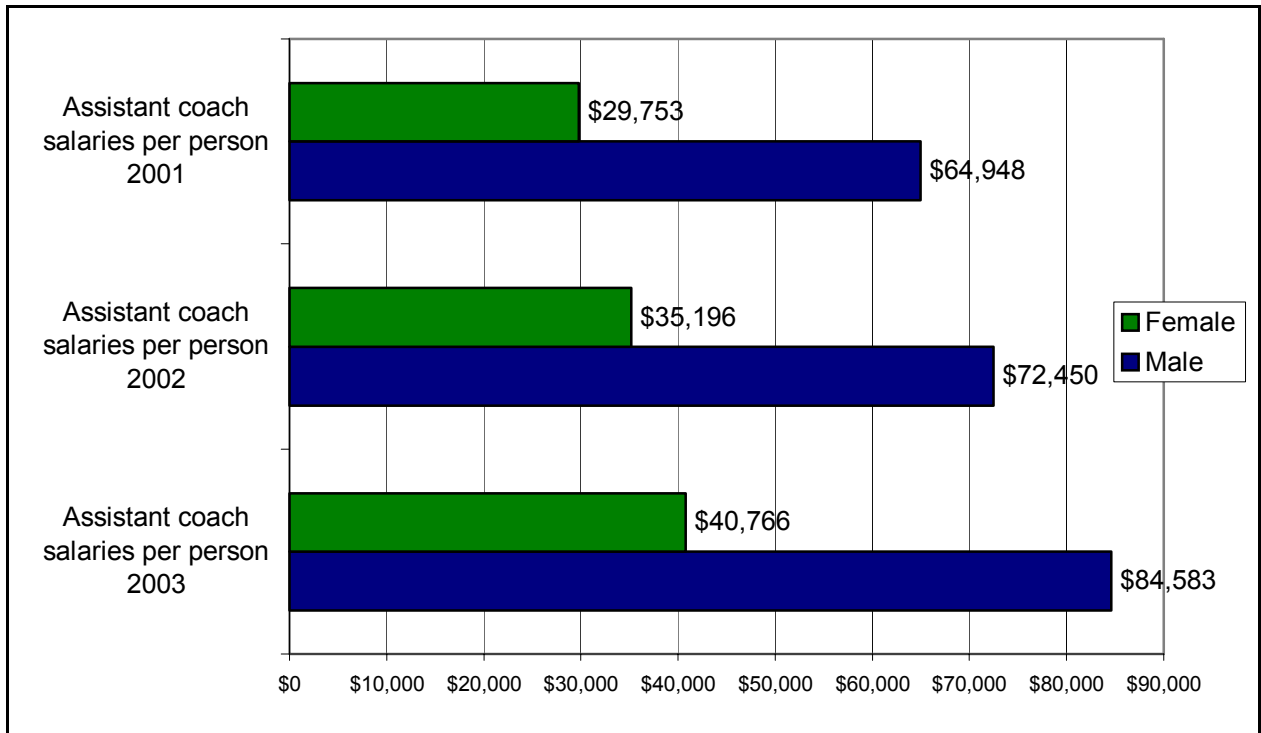


Table 6A: Top 10 – Men’s Assistant Coach Salaries per Person

Institution Name	\$ Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	\$ Increase 2002-2003
1. St. John's	\$363,333	1. Connecticut	\$1,529,130
2. Wake Forest	\$69,985	2. Mississippi State	\$1,457,608
3. Georgia Tech	\$18,598	3. Kansas	\$35,835
4. Vanderbilt	\$17,986	4. Texas A&M	\$28,489
5. University of Miami	\$16,933	5. Oklahoma State	\$25,250

6. Oregon	\$16,598	6. Iowa	\$20,058
7. Tulane	\$15,336	7. Temple	\$18,640
8. Michigan State	\$12,341	8. Texas Christian	\$16,341
9. Nebraska	\$12,112	9. Hawaii	\$16,238
10. Oklahoma	\$12,075	10. Washington State	\$15,327

Table 6B: Top 10 – Women’s Assistant Coach Salaries per Person

Institution Name	\$ Increase 2001-2002	Institution Name	\$ Increase 2002-2003
1. St. John's	\$198,527	1. Connecticut	\$1,002,623
2. Georgia	\$14,022	2. Mississippi State	\$405,491
3. Houston	\$11,982	3. Duke	\$31,807
4. Florida	\$9,506	4. New Mexico	\$22,267
5. New Mexico	\$9,443	5. Temple	\$20,212
6. Notre Dame	\$8,151	6. Hawaii	\$18,489
7. Washington State	\$7,886	7. Louisiana - Lafayette	\$15,826
8. Central Michigan	\$7,224	8. Texas - El Paso	\$14,311
9. LSU	\$7,018	9. Southern Mississippi	\$12,382
10. Texas Tech	\$6,940	10. Memphis	\$9,540

SENIOR WOMAN ADMINISTRATOR SURVEY ANALYSIS

Thirty-four NCAA Division I-A SWAs were invited to participate in an online survey concerning the significance of five different factors in an institution’s move

toward a more gender equitable program. The SWAs represented BCS-eligible institutions in different regions of the country. Of the 34 SWAs included in the survey 22 or 64.7% completed the survey. One SWA did not answer questions 3 and 5. Each survey question offered an ordinal scale from one (insignificant) to five (significant). In addition each question had a space for the SWAs to include comments further explaining their answer to the question. Figure 7 reports the SWAs responses to the ordinal scale parts of the survey. The overwhelming response to the first factor, the influence of the athletic director, was evident in both the ordinal answers and the additional comments.

Survey Question: How significant are the following factors in the movement toward gender equity in an NCAA Division I-A institution?

Figure 7: Senior Woman Administrator Survey Results

The top percentage indicates total respondent ratio; the bottom number represents actual number of respondents selecting the option.	1	2	3	4	5
	Insignificant	Somewhat Insignificant	No Opinion	Somewhat Significant	Significant
FACTOR #1: Attitude of the Athletic Director	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	100% 22
FACTOR #2: Total Operating Budget for the Athletic Department	5% 1	9% 2	0% 0	45% 10	41% 9
FACTOR #3: Attitude of the Senior Woman Administrator	0% 0	5% 1	5% 1	38% 8	52% 11
FACTOR #4: Amount of money generated by revenue producing sports	0% 0	9% 2	5% 1	50% 11	36% 8
FACTOR #5: Attitude of the Senior Administrators on campus...outside the Athletic Dept. (i.e. University President, VP Business Affairs, VP Student Affairs, VP Academic Affairs, Faculty Senate, Staff Council, etc.)	0% 0	0% 0	10% 2	38% 8	52% 11

The qualitative feedback provide in the boxes under each question will be discussed in Chapter 5. The unedited version of the comments offered by the SWAs is in Appendix A.

Chapter V

Conclusions, Discussion and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to investigate gender equity changes that have taken place in NCAA Division I-A intercollegiate athletic programs from 2001 to 2003. The results of the analysis of the EADA forms for NCAA Division I-A institutions, provided by the U.S. Department of Education were reported. The data obtained were compared to similar data from the NCAA 2002 Gender Equity Study with little to no difference in the two data sets.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Efforts to comply with Title IX gender-equity guidelines have affected athletic departments and all those having a relationship with athletic departments, from the student athletes, to the assistant coaches, head coaches, athletic department staff, fans and alumni. The literature reviewed revealed that since the passage of Title IX to the Educational Amendments in 1972, participation by women in intercollegiate athletics has risen sharply, while efforts by athletic departments to provide gender equitable programs has varied. Whether or not these efforts have helped or hurt the athletic programs will always be a question for debate. This study was seeking to identify some common characteristics among the schools that showed progress over the three years of the data. If these common characteristics could be identified, there is the possibility for laying a road map for other institutions to follow in their

quest for gender equity in athletics. The concept of gender equity is hard to define in exact terms, so identifying these characteristics could begin this process of definition.

The specific findings relative to the questions that guided this research were presented in Chapter IV. Key findings, which led to the conclusions from this study, are summarized in the following section.

CONCLUSIONS

Based upon the data collected, the following conclusions were made regarding the research questions posed in this study.

Research question #1: What change took place within the NCAA Division I-A, from 2001 to 2003 in gender-equity, as measured by the number of participants, operating expenses, student aid and head coaches' salaries?

NCAA Division I-A institutions did indicate progress toward gender equity for women as measured by increases in the number of women participating, operating expenses, student aid allocated to women and a rise in head coaches' salaries. While increases were shown over the three-year period, they were less than 2% in number of women participating, operating expenses and student aid. Women's team head coaches' salary increase of about \$16,000 is minimal when compared to the men's head coaches' salary increase of over \$42,000. This progress is considered negligible.

Research question #2: What common characteristics were found among institutions, which made the most progress toward gender equity?

Common characteristics were difficult to figure across the totality of the data analyzed. The institutions were a mixture of public and private, located geographically all over the country and had a range of student population from under 4,000 to over 45,000. In some cases, such as coaches' salaries, success of the team the previous year was reflected in a large salary increase for the coaches. This was not true in all of the categories, or even within all of the top ten institutions that showed an increase in female team coaches' salaries. With the exception of women's team head coach salaries and operating expenses, the top two institutions on each top ten list are large institutions, the majority of which are state universities. With the exception of the data on women's recruiting budgets, the top two institutions on each top ten list are located east of the Mississippi River. Across the board, two-thirds of the institutions represented on the top ten lists are located east of the Mississippi River.

Research question #3: Was it true that Division I-A institutions with a significant athletic department budget were more apt to have made progress toward gender equity in the last three years?

EADA data does not track a category called budget rather it tracks operating expenses. Of the 22 institutions holding a first or second slot on one of the top ten lists, their operating expenses range from \$878,921 at Bowling Green State University to \$5,230,600 at The University of Tennessee (Knoxville). Bowling Green's operating expenses listed as under one million dollars is not common for a NCAA Division I-A institution. Interestingly, Bowling Green was ranked second on

the top ten universities increase in operating expenses allocated to females 2002-2003. Tennessee's total operating expenses figure is similar to the figures reported by The University of Texas (Austin), \$5,260,346 and Texas A&M University (College Station), \$5,130,929. The average operating expenses total reported by the 23 institutions holding a first or second slot on one of the top ten lists is \$2,440,699. This appeared to be a middle of the road figure for NCAA Division I-A institutions, leading the researcher to conclude the total operating expenses reported on the EADA form is not an identifying factor for institutions making progress toward gender equity.

Research question #4: How did the perceptions of progress of the senior women administrators compare to actual progress made toward Title IX compliance?

The senior women administrators were asked two questions regarding athletic department finances and three questions regarding attitudes of campus administrators affiliated with decisions made in the athletic department. The quotes in this section are taken directly from the survey boxes. The researcher has only corrected typographical errors.

The SWAs completely agreed on only one survey question. When asked if the attitude of the athletic director was a factor in the movement toward gender equity at an NCAA Division I-A institution, 100% of the SWAs surveyed said the athletic director was a significant factor. One SWA wrote, "He (in most cases, rather than she) sets the tone for whether or not gender equity is important. Other staff

members take their signals from him.” Another SWA wrote, “Leadership starts at the top. ADs set the tone for culture in the department.”

Another SWA implied that the athletic director, along with the university president, play the most important role in an institution’s movement toward gender equity, possibly even more important than the Title IX statutes. She wrote, “The ‘attitude’ of both the institution’s CEO & athletics director is the most critical element in fashioning POSITIVE, PROACTIVE, DYNAMIC policy statements dictating fairness/equity will exist and flourish. As we have all seen over many, many years, the existence of Federal legislation has not wrought an abundance of gender equity.”

Several of the SWAs linked their answer concerning the athletic director’s attitude to the financial responsibilities of the position. One SWA wrote, “The athletics director sets the tone, controls the purse strings and establishes the priorities. Whether efforts start there they can certainly end there.”

The SWAs were asked to weigh the attitudes of the SWA position in movement toward gender equity. Their answers to this question varied from significant to somewhat insignificant. One SWA summed up her feelings this way, “The importance of attitude depends on the role and respect the SWA has on her campus.” Several of the SWAs agreed with this response, “I’d like to think it matters but I’m not sure that it really does.”

Some of their responses tied the SWA’s effectiveness to the attitude of the athletic director. One SWA wrote this, “Somewhat significant if she is a risk-taker, willing to step-up and stand tall and speak out. I’ve been in this career field a long

time and can tell you few individuals have the self-confidence, courage and character to do this. And those of us who do realize that our voice may fall on deaf ears----if the CEO & AD want it to exist, IT WILL; if not, it won't. Really very simplistic fact. I've worked for both kinds of ADs & CEO's. When they wanted to listen & sincerely did so, things happened FOR THE RIGHT REASONS.” Similarly, another SWA wrote this comment, “I say ‘somewhat significant’, as opposed to ‘significant’, because I think the AD’s attitude is the key. The SWA can describe to the AD what she thinks the institution should do, but if the AD doesn’t believe in equitable opportunities, then progress will be more difficult.”

In sum the SWA’s felt the burden to effect change in gender equity, but their ability to do so was in doubt. The “SWA has to champion the cause and do the homework to make the case,” but the change is not solely hers to make. This was not a reflection on their capability to effect the change, but rather whether the key stakeholders on campus would create an atmosphere in which change could occur.

The third question regarding attitude asked the SWAs to comment on the attitude of the other stakeholders on campus, such as the president, vice presidents, faculty senate and staff council. The stakeholder identified in the comments as playing a major role in gender equity was the president. In their comments, the SWAs repeatedly referred to the president setting the tone for the campus and deciding how much autonomy the athletic director has. One SWA wrote, “THE CEO sets the standard, dictates the direction the AD and all others will take. PERIOD!!!! I've seen it. Been a part of it. A strong AD with lots of clout can just do it if that's his

desire but an AD with little concern for "FAIRNESS/gender equity" will not act unless charged to do so by the CEO."

While several SWAs wrote about setting the president setting the tone for the campus, one SWA pointed out, "Too many campus leaders see Title IX as an issue for athletics departments to deal with."

The two survey questions regarding athletic department finances asked the SWAs if the total operating budget or the amount of money generated by revenue producing sports were significant factors in movement toward gender equity. The overall sense of the SWAs was that money is important, but the attitude of the athletic director, the SWA and the university president play more of a role in progress toward a gender equitable athletic program. One SWA wrote this about her campus situation, "Oft used as an excuse ['not enough money in the budget'] but indisputably the reason for fiscal squeeze is payoff to FB & BB [football and basketball] former FB & BB coaches and escalating operating budgets, staffs & salaries of new FB & M/WBB [men's and women's basketball] personnel & facilities. To accommodate the interests of the 'revenue' generating sports, non-revenue /minor/Olympic sports get cut and gender equity becomes the whipping post and 'bad girl.'"

Another SWA wrote, "Regardless of the operating budget, gender equity may be achieved - having additional resources does not necessarily mean those resources will be used to improve the status of gender equity; however if the commitment is there, having more resources helps in the achievement of gender

equity.” Similarly, this quote was reported, “\$ will always play a role, but no matter the size of budget the important factor is priorities.”

Almost half of the SWAs surveyed wrote something like this in the comment box, “Having money and the ability to prioritize spending is what it's all about.” Since the athletic director makes the decisions on priority, the decisions all seem to go back to the same person.

Two comments on the significance of money generated by revenue producing sports should be reported. One read, “Successful I-A football programs account for a significant portion of the budget.” Since all NCAA Division I-A institutions field football teams, it is important to recognize the money generated by football. The second comment read, “The amount of money generated by revenue producing sports is often put back into those revenue producing sports programs; this factor is not completely insignificant, however, in that state resources are dwindling and revenues must increase in order to continue to support all sports at a competitive level.” With university-based funding sources diminishing, athletic departments with the ability to raise money through ticket sales and private donations will have more money available.

So did the perception of the SWAs compare to the actual progress made? It would appear it did because they cited the attitudes of the athletic director and the president of the university as the most important factors. This researcher couldn't identify any common characteristics in the quantitative portion of this study, while the qualitative portion of the study, with the SWAs, was clear in identifying the attitudes

of the athletic director and the university president as significant factors in movement toward gender equity.

The data from the EADA forms measures many aspects of an athletic department, but it cannot measure attitudes. The fact that the EADA can't measure attitudes, the Office of Civil Rights can't measure attitudes and there is no precise definition of gender equity or Title IX compliance makes it impossible to quantify the characteristics of gender equity in intercollegiate athletics.

SUMMARY

Since the only definition currently available to measure gender equity in collegiate athletics is the three-prong test for Title IX compliance, the question was how are NCAA Division I-A institutions progressing in relation to this test?

Prong 1: Were the participation opportunities for each gender "substantially proportionate" to their respective full-time undergraduate enrollments? The data over the three-year study told us women make up about 52% of the undergraduate enrollment, but only about 43% of the student athlete population. In most parts of the country, this would not meet the OCR standard for compliance.

Prong 2: Did the institution have a "history and continuing practice of program expansion" for the underrepresented sex? According to the operating expenses analyzed from 2001 to 2003, program expansion at the NCAA Division I-A level is not widespread. With scholarship aid basically staying flat over the years of the study, this is a second factor pointing to slow program expansion within the NCAA Division I-A between 2001 and 2003.

Prong 3: Is the institution "fully and effectively" accommodating the interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex? This question could not be answered using the quantitative data expressed through the EADA form. Based on the qualitative responses given by the SWAs, the researcher presumed the answer to this question to be no.

While the OCR offers compliance through any one of the three prongs, Brian Snow, general counsel for Colorado State University and a legal expert in Title IX offers this opinion, "The first prong, that's the only way. The OCR likes to tell people that we have three prongs, but having been through litigation, I think you don't have a very good case if you're relying on two or three. The second and third prongs lead to the first prong anyway," Snow said. "For prong two you keep adding until what? Until you reach proportionality," he said. "Same for the third. You accommodate interests by adding teams until you reach proportionality" (http://rockymountainnews.com/drmn/college/article/0,1299,DRMN_40_1209986,00.html).

Gender equity is a difficult concept to understand, making it an elusive goal to reach; however it appeared the women's programs did note small increases toward gender equity in all of the areas studied, with the exception of operating expenses. Having had 32 years to work with gender equity issues on campus, athletic departments are still woefully short in meeting that goal. While it is easy to paint football as the scapegoat for all gender equity issues, football does not deserve all the blame. In most athletic departments, even the sports played by both men and

women, such as basketball or tennis, the budget for the men's program tends to be higher than the women's program.

Noted sports author Mariah Burton Nelson, writes in the introduction of the book Nike is a Goddess: The History of Women in Sports, "Athletic achievements are concrete, visible, measurable and culturally valued: obvious, tangible results of what people can do" (Smith, 1998, p. x). Women have sought to overcome sexism through sport. Just as Jesse Owens' wins were "wins" for all African-Americans, when Billie Jean King beat Bobby Riggs in 1973, she proved women can not only compete with men, they can win. Billie Jean won for all women.

As discussed in the review of literature, women's bodies have been at the core of women's sport and exercise for hundreds of years. The question was whether the female body could handle the stress of sport. "Female athletes repossess their bodies" (Smith, 1998, p. x). A woman tagging a runner out at home plate to win the state championship is not worrying about her hair being smashed under her ball cap or her menstrual cycle. When women athletes are "told that certain sports make women look 'like men,' they notice the truth: working out doesn't make them look like men; it makes them look happy. It makes them smile. It makes them radiate health and power. It makes them feel good" (Smith, 1998, p. x).

Nelson goes on to write that women's liberation begins with women's bodies and their right to control their bodies and stretch them to the limits *they* set. She contends that control over our bodies encompasses issues such as birth control, sexual harassment, sexual abuse, pornography, rape, battering, breast cancer,

breast enlargement, dieting, cosmetic surgery, abortion, anorexia, bulimia, sexuality and sports. Controlling one's self allows one to compete to the level she chooses.

Women athletes utilize their bodies as they please, not concerned with their outward appearance during play. During this time, these women are in control of their own bodies, they are defining themselves as they see fit. Audre Lorde wrote, "If we do not define ourselves for ourselves, we will be defined by others – for their use and to our detriment" (Lorde, 1984, p. 74). Similarly, Susan Faludi wrote that women must "be free to define themselves – instead of having their identity defined for them, time and again, by their culture and their men" (Faludi, 1992, p. 27).

Some women work overtime to ensure they maintain the status quo of femininity while competing in athletics. They insist on not challenging the dichotomy between the role society calls women to fill and the liberated role they fill when competing. Nelson contends that these women are helping the cause of feminism simply by participating in sport, whether or not that is their goal. Just as the women in the 1800s who started the riding bicycles did not intend to start a revolution, their bicycles afforded them freedom of movement which began to change their role in society.

Judges in Title IX cases have consistently ruled that "interest follows opportunity" (Smith, 1998, p. xvi). Title IX has definitely led to change over the last 32 years, but the change achieved up to this point is still shy of equity. As the saying goes from the movie *Field of Dreams*, "If you build it, they will come." The building must go on.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The issue of football will always play a critical role in gender equity. In the NCAA Division I-A all of the institutions play football, so it would appear their EADA data would be “apples and apples.” Even within the NCAA Division I-A there are the “haves” and the “have nots.” One follow-up study could examine institutions that are members of the Bowl Championship Series (BCS). For the most part, the teams represented in the BCS are from the most powerful conferences: Atlantic Coast Conference, Big East, Big Ten, Big 12, Pacific-10 and the Southeastern Conference. A comparison of the EADA data from these six conferences may show one conference to be making more progress towards equity, than the others.

Another possible research project would be a comprehensive qualitative study on the attitudes of NCAA Division I-A athletic directors. This study has shown the athletic directors to be the most powerful decision maker in the gender equity process. If this is the case, what is the collective attitude of NCAA Division I-A athletic directors towards gender equity?

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Having identified the attitude of the athletic director as the key to movement toward gender equity, the onus appears to be at the campus-level to make the necessary changes. Since at this point the punishment for not offering a gender-equitable athletic program is as far away as the Office of Civil Rights, the motivation at the campus-level to make these changes is not on the front burner.

After many coach-related scandals, culminating with the tragedy at Baylor University, the National Association of Basketball Coaches (NABC) called a meeting for all Division I-A men's basketball coaches to discuss the ethical dilemma faced by its members. Coaches who chose not to attend this meeting (October 15, 2003) forfeited their rights to purchase Final Four tournament tickets for the 2004 Final Four. By calling this meeting the NABC got the men's basketball coaches' collective attention and eventually the group agreed to a new stricter code of ethics. Mike Krzyzewski, head men's basketball coach at Duke University, said the most significant outcome of the conference was the presence of Myles Brand, president of the NCAA, and his vow to listen to coaches on how to solve college basketball's woes (<http://msnbc.msn.com/id/3226532/>, retrieved on July 12, 2004).

This researcher suggests The National Association of College Athletic Directors (NACAD), seek to team with the NCAA in an effort to seek significant movement toward a more gender-equitable intercollegiate athletic environment. Until the actual decision makers in college athletics, (the athletic directors) and the association that frankly controls intercollegiate athletics, (The NCAA), decide to make college athletics equitable, the gender gap will remain.

In addition to abiding by an agreed upon code of conduct through the NACAD, this researcher would like to see gender equity movement in some way tied to the large dollar amounts controlled by the NCAA. It is this researcher's opinion that no marked progress will be made until athletic directors see a significant monetary penalty as a concrete possibility. Not until the NCAA takes an active role

in seeking gender equity, will the athletic directors make a concerted effort to comply.

THE THREE PRONGS REVISITED

Should the Office of Civil Rights decide to change the way they measure gender equity, specifically in the application of Title IX, what might the new method look like? This researcher would encourage the new “prongs” to be more quantitative in nature, thus being measurable and eliminating the gray areas where athletic programs currently hide. For example, the current prong two (history and continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented gender) and prong three (fully and effectively accommodating the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender) are difficult to measure. When measuring these two prongs for compliance, regional OCR offices have approved vastly different situations as compliant. This variance is due in part to a standard which is open to many different interpretations.

This researcher would suggest the elimination of the nebulous three-prong measurement process, by eliminating prongs two and three. These two measures cause confusion and do not actually lead to a gender equitable situation. As Brian Snow, Colorado State University general counsel was quoted to say, “The first prong, that’s the only way.”

Gender equity is about participation opportunity. The only way to reach an equitable situation is to offer the participation opportunities at the same rate as the genders are represented in the participant pool. This means different institutions will

offer participation rates at different levels to reach gender equity, but the goal for gender equity in athletics will be the same across the board. This alternative assumes that men and women want to participate in intercollegiate athletics at the same rate. This researcher would agree with that assumption.

Should we see a concerted effort by NCAA Division I-A institutions to seek measurable gender equity this researcher would argue we would begin to move toward the The NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force definition of "an athletic program <considered> to be gender equitable when "the participants in both the men's and women's sports programs would accept as fair and equitable the overall program of the other gender" (http://www1.ncaa.org/membership/ed_outreach/gender_equity/index.html). When the male athletes would be just as comfortable in the females' locker facilities, in the females' practice and game times, with the females' level of coaching, with the females' method of transportation and the females' quality of equipment, as the males' then we will have crossed the finish line of gender equity. Until then, the effort continues.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT SWA ONLINE SURVEY

STUDY OF THE GENDER-EQUITY FACTORS IN

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS FROM

2000-2003

CONSENT FOR VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

I volunteer to participate in this study and understand the following:

1. This survey is conducted by Suzy Gray, a Ph.D. candidate at The University of Texas at Austin, using a multiple choice with additional comment space format. The survey will consist of five questions.
2. The questions I will be answering address my views on issues related to gender equity in NCAA Division I-A athletic programs. I understand that the primary purpose of this research is to identify ways that will effectively increase gender equity in college athletics.
3. My name will not be used, nor will I be identified personally in any way or at any time. I understand it will be necessary to identify participants in the dissertation by position, but college affiliation or conference affiliation will not be reported.
4. I may withdraw from part or all of this study at any time.

5. I have the right to review material prior to the final oral exam or other publication.
6. I understand that results from this survey will be included in Suzy Gray's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals for publication.
7. I am free to participate or not to participate without prejudice.
8. Because of the small number of participants, approximately 34, I understand that there is some risk that I may be identified as a participant of this study.
9. The researcher may wish to present some of the information gathered during this survey process for future publication. Please check YES below if you are willing to allow the researcher to use the comments you made in your survey submission. Note: You will not be identified by name, institution or athletic conference affiliation in any publication.

By checking the YES box below, you are agreeing to all of these parameters.

Thanks for your assistance.

Suzy Gray
University of Texas at Austin
Doctoral Candidate in Higher Education

210-826-0073
suzygray@mail.utexas.edu

APPENDIX B: UNEDITED RESPONSES FROM SWA ONLINE SURVEY

	Question # precedes response
Respondent 1	1. If the attitude it not positive most likely Gender Equity will not be a priority
	2. It is important, but if Gender Equity is a priority, the institution will make it happen.
	3. This position is the Senior Woman Administrator - NOT Senior Women's - the position is a singular person w/o possession of anything. The importance of attitude depends on the role and respect the SWA has on her campus.
	4. This effects the overall budget which goes back to Factor #2
	5. If campus doesn't support it, it makes the role of the AD much more important.
Respondent 2	1. most decisions are ultimately made by this individual after seeking input from others, which makes their role crucial
	2. this has been a very limiting factor for our institution - we would have added many more sports, in my opinion, if funds were less limited
	3. important, but not as important as the attitude of the ad, since it is the ad who typically makes the final call
	4. healthy revenue production relieves financial pressures on operating budgets
	5. the importance of this factor varies according to how much autonomy the AD is offered - they are less important in the case of an ad with much authority to make decisions; more important when they are not as reliant upon the AD
Respondent 3	1. He (in most cases, rather than she) sets the tone for whether or not gender equity is important. Other staff members take their signals from him.
	2. We are lucky enough to run in the black every year and adding a sport is not the financial burden it is for many programs. We do not look at cutting men's sports because we have the necessary funding for all.
	3. I'd like to think it matters but I'm not sure that it really does.
	4. See factor 2 comment

	5. A strong faculty rep helps. And a president with a sense of doing what's right is helpful, too.
Respondent 4	<p>1. The "attitude" of both the institution's CEO & athletics director is the most critical element in fashioning POSITIVE, PROACTIVE, DYNAMIC policy statements dictating fairness/equity will exist and flourish. As we have all seen over many, many years, the existence of Federal legislation has not wrought an abundance of gender equity. To be sure, it has been STATE's Legislation [a la Washington State], and law suites & the threat of same, or CEO's who intended to do the right thing, regardless of the presence or absence of Federal/State law, who had a greater hand in carving out FAIRNESS.</p> <p>2. Oft used as an excuse ["not enough money in the budget"] but indisputably the reason for fiscal squeeze is payoff to FB & BB former FB & BB coaches and escalating operating budgets, staffs & salaries of new FB & M/WBB personnel & facilities. To accommodate the interests of the "revenue" generating sports, non-revenue/minor/Olympic sports get cut and gender equity becomes the whipping post and "bad girl."</p> <p>3. Somewhat significant if she is a risk-taker, willing to step-up and stand tall and speak out. I've been in this career field a long time and can tell you few individuals have the self-confidence, courage and character to do this. And those of us who do realize that our voice may fall on deaf ears----it goes back to Factor # 1`----if the CEO & AD want it to exist, IT WILL; if not, it won't. Really very simplistic fact. I've worked for both kinds of ADs & CEOs. When they wanted to listen & sincerely did so, things happened FOR THE RIGHT REASONS.</p>

	<p>4. If you are an "Olympic/non-revenue/minor" sport program [men's or women's] that generates a substantial amount of ticket revenue by putting "butts in the seats" [e.g. baseball, volleyball, etc.] you will get noticed & likely save your program when/if program cuts occur. That said, if you are M/W BB or FB you have no worries because you are perceived to be revenue generating even if you are not generating enough to pay for your own program, let alone all the others. At (researcher removed name of institution to protect anonymity of respondent) we are fortunate to have an outstanding FB program that has paid for ALL of us, including BB. The bulk of the \$\$\$ MBB makes comes from share of TV & NCAA--look closely and a lot of the MBB programs barely pay for themselves with that assistance from Conference/TV/NCAA...and definitely the WBB are BIG GUZZLERS of the athletics budget. The NCAA survey indicates that 75% of Big 10 WBB programs were in the red to the tune of \$800,000 or more----a fact that is proven to be about the average across all D-1 WBB programs. Now tell me, when would we ever allow the wrestling, volleyball, gymnastics, swim or soccer teams to repeatedly go over their budget --- year after year???? I'm a former bb player, national official & coach but I abhor this practice.</p>
	<p>5. AGAIN, GO BACK TO ONE---THE CEO sets the standard, dictates the direction the AD and all others will take. PERIOD!!!! I've seen it. Been a part of it. A strong AD with lots of clout can just do it if that's his desire but an AD with little concern for "FAIRNESS/gender equity" will not act unless charged to do so by the CEO.</p>
<p>Respondent 5</p>	<p>1. The AD has the most power and influence in the allocation of resources</p> <p>2. Regardless of the operating budget, gender equity may be achieved - having additional resources does not necessarily mean those resources will be used to improve the status of gender equity; however if the commitment is there, having more resources helps in the achievement of gender equity</p> <p>3. This depends greatly on the role/job description/level of influence of this person on campus; the SWA position varies greatly from campus to campus - if this person is committed to equity AND is in a position of influence, her attitude can be a factor in movement toward gender equity</p>

	<p>4. An institution is either committed or is not committed to achieving gender equity - the amount of money generated by revenue producing sports is often put back into those revenue producing sports programs; this factor is not completely insignificant, however, in that state resources are dwindling and revenues must increase in order to continue to support all sports at a competitive level</p>
	<p>5. Much of this depends on the level of influence this person has on athletics - in some cases, the athletics director reports to these individuals and thus, their attitude regarding gender equity becomes increasingly important. If the institution itself has a culture of making a commitment to equity, however, the attitude of all of these individuals can be a significant factor in the athletics department's ability to achieve equity. These individuals play a role in defining that level of commitment</p>
Respondent 6	<p>1. The athletics director sets the tone, controls the purse strings and establishes the priorities. Whether efforts start there they can certainly end there.</p>
	<p>2. More money may make it easier to comply but it is not necessarily determinative.</p>
	<p>3. Rightly or wrongly this person is looked to as the catalyst for change and progress. Unfortunately, if she does not make it a priority, in some cases no one will.</p>
	<p>4. See response to #2 above.</p>
	<p>5. These people may assist in creating the atmosphere necessary for progress, as noted in response to #1 above. Too many campus leaders see Title IX as an issue for athletics departments to deal with.</p>
Respondent 7	<p>1. Advocacy is essential from leadership</p>
	<p>2. Must have resources to provide opportunities</p>
	<p>3. Empowered individuals can effect change</p>
	<p>4. Successful I-A football programs account for a significant portion of the budget. Private fund-raising also is essential</p>
	<p>5. Must be a collective effort</p>
Respondent 8	<p>1. It is critical for the Athletic Director to have a commitment to being fair and to doing what is right, along with the leadership skills to communicate the message.</p>
	<p>2. Having money and the ability to prioritize spending is what it's all about.</p>

	<p>3. Achieving gender equity is among the responsibilities of the SWA (although nobody accomplishes that alone). The SWA has to champion the cause and do the homework to make the case.</p> <p>4. Without it, we (athletic departments) would not exist.</p> <p>5. Gender equity is more than just an athletic department issue. Achieving success in this area requires an institutional commitment.</p>
Respondent 9	<p>1. The AD and his/her attitude is the key factor.</p> <p>2. Additional sports for either gender cost money and if the institution doesn't have the money, then adding sports becomes very difficult.</p> <p>3. I say "somewhat significant", as opposed to "significant", because I think the AD's attitude is the key. The SWA can describe to the AD what she thinks the institution should do, but if the AD doesn't believe in equitable opportunities, then progress will be more difficult.</p> <p>4. Again, fielding sports teams costs money. So, those institutions that have more of it are in a better position to offer more sports for women.</p> <p>5. Aside from the AD, the President is the other significant factor. Other university administrators, such as those mentioned above, may play a less significant role.</p>
Respondent 10	<p>1. Leadership starts at the top. ADs set the tone for culture in the department.</p> <p>2. Regardless of the size of the budget, it relates to the commitment to gender equity. It can be attained regardless of the total operating budget.</p> <p>3. The SWA plays a significant role.</p> <p>4. No comment given.</p> <p>5. The President has the most important role.</p>
Respondent 11	<p>1. The AD is the leader and sets appropriate priorities</p> <p>2. \$ will always play a role but no matter the size of budget the important factor is priorities</p> <p>3. Has to be effective in leadership, education, and aggressive presentation</p> <p>4. Again imp to use \$ wisely</p> <p>5. University must understand the role of gender equity</p>
Respondent 12	<p>1. Having an AD who thinks about and is supportive of gender equity is absolutely critical.</p>

	<p>2. How you split up the pie is not related to how much pie there is. Case in point, DII and III schools seem to do a better job with equity than DI.</p>
	<p>3. It is important to have an SWA who supports and advocates for equity, especially if the AD does not. By the way, the term is Senior Woman Administrator, not Senior Women's Administrator as you indicate in this question. The difference is key, the first is the highest ranking female, the second implies any person who works with women's programs. Most SWA's these days work with men's and women's programs.</p>
	<p>4. This may have a reverse correlation. For programs that generate large amounts of revenue, they also tend to spend a lot on those sports. It makes the gap between them and women's programs bigger.</p>
	<p>5. The AD reports to someone - how that person supports equity is important. But usually they don't know enough about the details to know what "equitable" means and their criteria for evaluating AD job performance may not include equity. It still comes back to the AD and SWA.</p>
<p>Respondent 13</p>	<p>1. The Athletic Director sets the tone for the department. The Athletic Director must embrace the principles of gender equity or it will not be successful.</p>
	<p>2. Again, the athletic director's attitude is important and s/he sets the budget for all programs. If budget is large, all sports can be given the opportunity to compete for conference and national titles with not restrictions on recruiting. However, if the budgets are smaller, decisions have to be made about which sports have freedom in recruiting and competition. Those, for practical reasons, are usually men's sports--football, basketball and hockey.</p>
	<p>3. The AD's attitude is more important, but the SWA must be energetic, pleasant, and proactive. She has to constantly be creative in helping the rest of the administration plan as budgets get tighter.</p>
	<p>4. Very significant. The big revenue sports help pay for all of the others. At most universities, women's sports gain from the revenue produced by the men's sports.</p>
	<p>5. Their general attitude around campus towards women and by women is very important.</p>

Respondent 14	1. The Athletic Director clearly sets the tone and direction for the department.
	2. The financial health of a department often dictates an institution's ability to make changes (adding or dropping) relative to sport sponsorship.
	3. No comments noted.
	4. No comments noted.
	5. No comments noted.
Respondent 15	1. Critical...if he/she does not buy into the concept of gender equity, it's an up hill battle.
	2. In a perfect world, one not constrained by budgets, we could/would provide opportunities for any person to have a D1 Athletic experience....but that's not reality.
	3. This role is only significant if the AD is not committed to gender equity. The SWA needs to reinforce opportunities and attitudes, not blaze the trail.
	4. Again, the more the revenue sports produce, the more opportunities are created for other sports...for both men and women.
	5. Again, it's critical for adoption of the spirit of gender equity for the key administrators to buy in.

Glossary

Assistant coach refers to an employee who assists the head coach with leading an intercollegiate sports team. Full-time means the assistant coach is assigned to a specific team in which to serve all of his/her working hours (i.e. forty hours per week).

Athletic director refers to the highest-ranking administrator in a collegiate athletic department. Sometimes referred to as the AD.

Athletically related aid is aid awarded to a student that requires a student to participate in an intercollegiate athletic program. Federal regulations interpret this definition to include red-shirt student athletes, students in a non-competing fifth year and students on a medical hardship (Title IX Regulations, 45 C.F.R. part 86 (1975), codified at 34 C.F.R., 106 (1991)).

Athletic participation level refers to the number of student-athletes who either: (a) are listed as team members; (b) practice with the team and receives coaching as of the day of the first scheduled intercollegiate contest; (c) receive athletically related student aid.

Coaches' salaries are the remuneration paid to the coaches by the institutions; i.e. all wages and bonuses the institution pays a coach as compensation for leading the intercollegiate sports team. The use of the term salary in this study does not include compensation received by the coach from entities other than the employing institution, such as television or product endorsements.

Compliance refers to meeting the expectations outlined in the Title IX Regulations and Policy Interpretation (1979), as confirmed by the Office of Civil Rights.

Discrimination refers to treatment or consideration based on class or category rather than individual merits, partiality or prejudice.

Equity refers to the state, quality or ideal of being just, impartial and fair.

Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) refers to a Federal law (Section 360B of Public Law 103-382), passed in 1994, requiring coeducational institutions of higher education, participating in federal student aid programs that have intercollegiate athletic programs, to file a report disclosing certain information concerning their intercollegiate athletic programs, on an annual basis (<http://www.vernoncollege.edu/eada.html#geninfo>).

Facilities include training areas, equipment, athletic arenas and fields, dressing areas, office space and living quarters, for both practice and competition in intercollegiate athletics, used by institutions.

Gender difference means the natural physiological difference between males and females.

Gender equity means the male and female athletes and programs have the same opportunities to train, compete, hire qualified coaches, recruit, and provide equitable budgets, equipment and any additional resources, which are necessary to have a competitive athletic program.

Head coach refers to a full-time university employee who leads an intercollegiate sports team. Full-time means a coach is assigned to a specific team in which to serve all of his/her working hours (i.e. forty hours per week).

National Association of Collegiate Athletics of Directors (NACAD) serves as the professional association for those in the field of athletics administration, providing educational opportunities and serves as a vehicle for networking and the exchange of information to others in the profession.

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is the primary national governing body for men and women's intercollegiate sports. This is a private organization institutions are not required to join; rather they join on their own accord.

Office for Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education (OCR) is the principal federal government office charged with enforcing Title IX.

Operating expenses include the total institutional expenditures for lodging, meals, transportation, officials, uniforms and equipment for all home and away games.

Participant is a student-athlete who either (1) is listed as a team member; (2) practices with the team and receives coaching as of the day of the first scheduled intercollegiate contest; (3) receives athletically related student aid.

Recruiting expenses include the total institutional expenditures associated with bringing athletes to the institution with the intent of adding them to an intercollegiate sports roster. Costs include, but are not limited to: transportation, lodging and meals for both recruits and the institution's employees engaged in

enlisting the athlete's skills, expenditures for on-site visits and all other major expenses logically related to identifying and bringing the student athlete to the point of playing on the institution's team.

Senior woman administrator is the highest-ranking female athletic administrator in a collegiate athletic department. If the athletic director is a female, the SWA will be next highest-ranking female in the department.

Undergraduate enrollment includes full-time baccalaureate degree-seeking students.

Unduplicated participant refers to the EADA practice of counting each athlete only one time on each campus. If a student plays volleyball and runs track, the student is only counted in the gender equity equation one time.

Varsity athletics refers to trained student athletes competing in games or sports, requiring skill, strength and/or speed, against the student athletes from another institution. The university's athletic department sponsors these competitions.

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Vita

Susan Webster Gray (Suzy) was born in Little Rock, Arkansas on July 28, 1960. Suzy's parents are Susan East May and James Haughton Gray, Sr., also of Little Rock. Suzy followed a long line of family in graduating from Little Rock Central High School in 1978. She matriculated to Trinity University, San Antonio, Texas, where in 1982 she earned a B.A. degree in Broadcast Journalism. After a short stint with the Arkansas Radio Network in Little Rock, Suzy moved to Lubbock, Texas to pursue a Masters in Sports Administration at Texas Tech University. She worked as a graduate assistant with Texas Tech Rec Sports during her tenure at Texas Tech. She was awarded the M.Ed. in 1984.

Suzy returned to San Antonio in 1985, working briefly with the Downtown YMCA prior to accepting a position with USAA. She worked as the director for employee recreation at USAA for nine years. In 1995, Suzy accepted a position in the Rec Sports Department at Our Lady of the Lake University, San Antonio, Texas.

In 1998, The University of Texas * San Antonio offered Suzy the Director Campus Recreation position, with the charge to create the department and design UTSA's first Campus Recreation Center.

In January 2003, the UTSA Recreation & Wellness Center opened. Suzy was promoted to Executive Director Campus Recreation in June 2004.

Permanent address: 151 Thorain Blvd., San Antonio, Texas, 78212-1227.

This dissertation was typed by Suzy Gray.